

Volume 10

T-Z

U·X·L

ENCYCLOPEDIA  
OF WORLD  
BIOGRAPHY

U·X·L

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## HANK AARON

**Born:** February 5, 1934

**Mobile, Alabama**

*African American baseball player*

**H**ank Aaron is major league baseball's leading home run hitter, with a career total of 755 home runs from 1954 to 1976. He also broke ground for the participation of African Americans in professional sports.

### *Early life*

Henry Louis Aaron was born in Mobile, Alabama, on February 5, 1934, the third of

Herbert and Estella Aaron's eight children. His father was a shipyard worker and tavern owner. Aaron took an early interest in sports. Although the family had little money and he took several jobs to try to help out, he spent a lot of time playing baseball at a neighborhood park. Lacking interest in school because he believed he would make it as a ballplayer, Aaron transferred out of a segregated (restricted to members of one race) high school in his junior year to attend the Allen Institute in Mobile, which had an organized baseball program.

After high school graduation, Aaron played on local amateur and semi-pro teams, such as the Pritchett Athletics and the Mobile Black Bears, where he began to make a name



*Hank Aaron.*

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for himself. At this time Jackie Robinson (1919–1972) of the Brooklyn Dodgers was breaking the baseball color barrier by becoming the first African American player in the major leagues. At age seventeen, Aaron gained immediate success as a hard-hitting infielder. In 1951 the owner of the Indianapolis Clowns, part of the professional Negro American League, signed him as the Clowns' shortstop for the 1952 season.

### ***Record breaker***

Being almost entirely self-taught, Aaron batted cross handed in his early years,

“because no one had told him not to,” according to one of his biographers. Still, Aaron's sensational hitting with the Clowns prompted a Boston Braves scout to purchase his contract in 1952. Assigned to Eau Claire, Wisconsin, in the minor Northern League (where coaching corrected his batting style), Aaron batted .336 and won the league's rookie of the year award. The following year he was assigned to the Braves' Jacksonville, Florida team, in the South Atlantic (Sally) League. Even while enduring the taunting of fans and racial insults from fellow players in the segregated south, he went on to bat .362, with 22 homers and 125 runs batted in (RBIs). He was named the league's most valuable player in 1953.

During winter ball in Puerto Rico in 1953 and 1954 Aaron began playing positions in the outfield. In the spring of 1954 he trained with the major league Milwaukee Braves and won a starting position when the regular right fielder suffered an injury. Although Aaron was sidelined late in the season with a broken ankle, he batted .280 as a rookie that year. Over the next twenty-two seasons, this quiet, six-foot, right-handed All-Star established himself as one of the most durable and skilled hitters in major league history.

In fourteen of the seasons Aaron played for the Braves, he batted .300 or more. In fifteen seasons he hit 30 or more homers, scored 100 or more runs, and drove in 100 or more runs. In his long career Aaron led all major league players in RBIs with 2,297. He played in 3,298 games, which ranked him third among players of all time. Aaron twice led the National League in batting, and four times led the league in homers. His consistent hitting

produced a career total of 3,771 hits, again ranking him third all-time. When Aaron recorded his three thousandth hit on May 7, 1970, he was the youngest player (at thirty-six) since Ty Cobb (1886–1961) to reach that milestone. Aaron played in twenty-four All-Star games, tying a record. His lifetime batting average was .305, and in two World Series he batted .364. He also held the record for hitting home runs in three straight National League playoff games, which he accomplished in 1969 against the New York Mets.

### *A quiet superstar*

Although Aaron ranked among baseball's superstars, he received less publicity than other players. In part this was due to Aaron's quiet personality and the continuing prejudice against African American players in the majors. Moreover, playing with the Milwaukee Braves (who became the Atlanta Braves in 1966) denied Aaron the publicity received by major league players in cities like New York or Los Angeles. During Aaron's long career the Braves only won two National League pennants and one divisional title. The Braves won the World Series in 1957, the year Aaron's 44 homers helped him win his only Most Valuable Player award. The following year Milwaukee repeated as National League champions but lost the World Series.

Year after year Aaron ranked among the National League's leading home run hitters. It was not until 1970, however, that sportswriters and fans began noticing that Aaron was about to challenge Babe Ruth's (1895–1948) record total of 714 homers. By 1972 Aaron's assault on the all-time homer record was big news, and his \$200,000 annual salary was the highest in the league. The following year

Aaron hit 40 homers, falling one short of tying Ruth's mark. Early in the 1974 season Aaron hit the tying homer in Cincinnati, Ohio. Then, on the night of April 8, 1974, before a large crowd in Atlanta, Georgia, and with a national television audience looking on, Aaron hit his 715th homer off Dodgers pitcher Al Downing, breaking Ruth's record. It was the highlight of Aaron's career, although it was tempered by a growing number of death threats and racist letters that made Aaron fear for his family's safety.

### *A new career*

After the 1974 season Aaron left the Braves and went to play for the Milwaukee Brewers until his retirement in 1976. At the time of his retirement as a player, the forty-two-year-old veteran had raised his all-time homer output to 755. When he left the Brewers he became a vice president and director of player development for the Braves, where he scouted new team prospects and oversaw the coaching of minor leaguers. He later went on to become a senior vice president for the Braves. Overall, his efforts contributed toward making the Braves one of the strongest teams in the National League. In 1982 Aaron was voted into the Baseball Hall of Fame at Cooperstown, New York, and in 1997 Hank Aaron Stadium in Mobile was dedicated to him.

Aaron received two honors in October 1999. Congress passed a resolution recognizing him as one of baseball's greatest players and praising his work with his Chasing the Dream Foundation, which helps children age nine through twelve pursue their dreams. Later that month, Aaron was named to major league baseball's All-Century Team, whose

members were chosen by fans and a panel of baseball experts. In January 2002, Aaron was honored with one of the greatest tributes an athlete can receive: his picture appeared on a Wheaties cereal box.

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## RALPH ABERNATHY

**Born:** March 11, 1926

Linden, Alabama

**Died:** April 30, 1990

Atlanta, Georgia

*African American civil rights activist*

Civil rights leader Ralph Abernathy was the best friend and close assistant of Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968). He followed King as the president of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). The organization used nonviolent means to fight for civil rights for African Americans.

### **Family and youth**

Ralph David Abernathy, one of twelve children, was born in Linden, Alabama, on

March 11, 1926. His father, William, the son of a slave, first supported his family as a sharecropper (a farmer who pays some of his crops as rent to the land's owner). In time William Abernathy saved enough money to buy five hundred acres of his own and built a prosperous farm. William Abernathy eventually emerged as one of the leading African Americans in his county. William Abernathy became the county's first African American to vote and the first to serve on the grand jury (a jury that decides whether or not evidence supports a formal charge against a person for a crime). William Abernathy also served as a deacon (a nonclergy church member) in his church.

Ralph Abernathy went to Alabama State University and graduated with a degree in mathematics in 1950. He later earned a master's degree in sociology from Atlanta University in 1951. During this time he also worked as the first African American disc jockey at a white Montgomery, Alabama, radio station. While attending college he was elected president of the student council and led successful protests that called for better cafeteria conditions and better living quarters for students. This experience was the beginning of a career leading protests and working to improve the lives of others.

From an early age Ralph Abernathy wanted to become a preacher and was encouraged by his mother to pursue his ambition. As he later recalled, he had noticed that the preacher was always the person who was most admired in his community. Before finishing college Abernathy became a Baptist minister. After completing his education he served as minister at the Eastern Star Baptist church in Demopolis, Alabama, near his home town of Linden. At age twenty-six

Abernathy became a full-time minister at the First Baptist Church in Montgomery. Martin Luther King Jr. began preaching at another of Montgomery's leading African American churches, Dexter Avenue Baptist, three years later. During this time King and Abernathy became close friends.

### ***Montgomery bus boycott***

In 1955 an African American woman from Montgomery named Rosa Parks refused to give up her bus seat so that a white passenger could sit down. She was arrested for this action and was later fined. This event began an important historic phase of the civil rights movement. Local ministers and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) began a boycott of the city buses to end segregation. At the time, the buses in Montgomery were segregated (people were required by law to sit in separate sections based on their race). Parks had been sitting in one of the front seats, which was in the "white" section. African Americans were required by law to give up their seats to white riders if other seats were not available. The ministers formed the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA) to coordinate the boycott and voted Martin Luther King Jr. its president.

The MIA convinced African American cab drivers to take African American workers to their jobs for a ten-cent fare. This made it more affordable for African Americans to avoid riding the buses. After the city government declared the ten-cent cab rides illegal, people with cars formed car pools so that the boycotters would not have to return to the buses. After 381 days the boycott ended with the buses completely desegregated. The boy-

cotters' victory over bus segregation was enforced by a United States district court.

During 1956 Abernathy and King had been in and out of jail and court as a result of their efforts to end the practice of separating people based on their race on buses. Toward the end of the bus boycott on January 10, 1957, Abernathy's home and church were bombed. By the time the boycott was over, it had attracted national and international attention. Televised reports of the MIA's activities inspired African American civil rights protesters all over the South.



### ***Nonviolent civil rights movement***

King and Abernathy's work together in the MIA was the beginning of years of partnership and friendship between them. Their friendship, as well as their joint efforts in the civil rights struggle, lasted until King's assassination in 1968. Soon after the bus boycott, they met with other African American clergymen in Atlanta, Georgia, to form the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). The goal of the SCLC was to press for civil rights in all areas of life. King was elected president and Abernathy was named secretary-treasurer. The group began to plan for an organized, nonviolent civil rights movement throughout the South. Their aim was to end segregation and to push for more effective federal civil rights laws.

In the early 1960s the civil rights movement began to intensify. Students staged "sit-ins" by sitting in the "whites only" sections of lunch counters. Other nonviolent demonstrations and efforts to desegregate interstate buses and bus depots also continued. During this time Abernathy moved to Atlanta to become the pastor of West Hunter Baptist Church. In Atlanta, he would be able to work more closely with the SCLC and King, who was living in the city.

In the spring of 1963 SCLC leaders began to plan their efforts to desegregate facilities in Birmingham, Alabama. Publicity (of events shown on television) about the rough treatment of African American demonstrators directed the eyes of the world to that city's civil rights protest. Abernathy and King went to prison, while more than three thousand other African Americans in the city also endured periods of time in jail while working for equal rights. The Birmingham demonstra-

tions were successful, and the demands for desegregation of public facilities were agreed upon. After the Birmingham demonstrations, desegregation programs began in over 250 southern cities. Thousands of schools, parks, pools, restaurants, and hotels were opened to all people, regardless of their race.

### ***March on Washington***

The success of the Birmingham demonstration also encouraged President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) to send a civil rights bill to Congress. In order to stress the need for this bill, the leaders of all of the nation's major civil rights organizations agreed to participate in a massive demonstration in Washington, D.C. On August 28, 1963, this "March on Washington" attracted over 250,000 African American and white demonstrators from all over the United States. By the next summer the Civil Rights Act, which banned discrimination (treating people unequally because of their differences) based on race, color, religion, or national origin, had been signed into law. In 1965 the Voting Rights Act, which banned discrimination in voting, was passed.

### ***Leadership of the SCLC***

On April 4, 1968, King was assassinated in Memphis, Tennessee. Abernathy was named the new leader of the SCLC. His first project was to complete King's plan to hold a Poor People's Campaign in Washington during which poor whites, African Americans, and Native Americans would present their problems to President Lyndon B. Johnson (1908–1973) and the Congress. As a result of these protests, Abernathy once again found himself in jail. This time he was charged with

unlawful assembly (an unlawful gathering of people for an illegal purpose). After the Poor People's Campaign, Abernathy continued to lead the SCLC, but the organization did not regain the popularity it had held under King's leadership.

Abernathy resigned from the SCLC in 1977. Later, he formed an organization that was designed to help train African Americans for better economic opportunities. He continued to serve as a minister and as a lecturer throughout the United States. In 1989 Abernathy published his autobiography, called *And the Walls Come Tumbling Down* (Harper, 1989). Abernathy died of a heart attack on April 30, 1990, in Atlanta.

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## BELLA ABZUG

**Born:** July 24, 1920

New York, New York

**Died:** March 31, 1998

New York, New York

*American lawyer, politician, and civil rights activist*

Bella Abzug worked for civil and women's rights as a lawyer and as a politician. Throughout her long political career, she used her sharp tongue and unusual style to advance the issues that were her deepest concern. As she wrote in her autobiography, "I'm going to help organize a new political coalition of the women, the minorities and the young people, along with the poor, the elderly, the workers, and the unemployed, which is going to turn this country upside down and inside out."

### ***An early interest in women's rights***

Bella Stavisky was born on July 24, 1920, in the Bronx, New York. She was the daughter of Emanuel and Esther Stavisky, Russian Jewish immigrants who owned a meat market. During her youth she worked in her father's store until it failed in the 1920s, and he turned to selling insurance. In 1930 her father died, leaving her mother to support the family with his insurance money and by taking jobs in local department stores.

Bella's interest in women's rights began at a young age. Her family was deeply religious. While attending synagogue (a place for Jewish worship of God) with her grandfather, she was offended that women were not treated the same as men. According to the rules of Orthodox Judaism (a branch of the Jewish faith that strictly follows customs and traditions), women were forced to sit in the back rows of the balcony in synagogues.

### ***Making a difference***

Bella Stavisky attended an all-female high school in the west Bronx, where she was elected president of her class. She then went



*Bella Abzug.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

on to Hunter College, where she served as student-body president and graduated in 1942. She taught Jewish history and Hebrew on the weekends. She marched in protests against the harm being done to Jewish people in Europe and against British and American neutrality in the Spanish Civil War. (The war was a revolt led by the military against Spain's Republican government that lasted from 1936 to 1939). During World War II (1939–45) she was one of thousands of American women entering war production industries, working in a shipbuilding factory. In 1944 she married Maurice Abzug, a stockbroker and writer. The couple had two daughters.

Bella Abzug decided that she could do more to help people if she became a lawyer. She entered Columbia Law School, where she became editor of the *Columbia Law Review*. After graduating in 1947, she worked as a labor lawyer and represented civil rights workers. She became committed to helping poor people gain justice and a decent life in the days following World War II.

In the 1950s Abzug became deeply involved in the early civil rights movement. In 1950 she agreed to defend an African American man named Willie McGee. McGee was accused of raping a white woman with whom he had been having an affair, found guilty, and sentenced to death under the harsh laws in place in Mississippi during that time. Although she lost the case, Abzug succeeded in delaying the man's execution for two years by appealing the ruling twice to the Supreme Court.

In the late 1960s Abzug continued to do what she could to help ethnic minorities, women's groups, and the poor. During these years she became active in the Democratic Party. After the Chicago Democratic Convention in 1968 she joined with other like-minded Democrats to found the New Democratic Coalition. She also joined in the movement to ban nuclear testing, a movement that became more of an antiwar movement as the United States deepened its involvement in the Vietnam War (1955–75). In this war, the United States supported the anti-Communist government of South Vietnam in its fight against a takeover by the Communist government of North Vietnam.

### *Elected to office*

In 1970, with the support of labor organizations and the Jewish population,

Abzug was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives from New York City's Nineteenth District. She quickly gained national attention for her bold ideas and for the wide hats she wore within the halls of Congress. On her first day on the job she introduced a bill calling for American troops to be pulled out of Vietnam by July 4, 1971. Although the bill was defeated within a week, Abzug had made a name for herself as a politician with a tough style who was unafraid of her opponents.

While in office she coauthored the 1974 Freedom of Information Act (a law that gives people in America the right to access otherwise secret information from government agencies) and the 1974 Privacy Act (a law that gives U.S. citizens and permanent residents the right to access many government files that contain information about them). She was the first to call for the impeachment (a process in which a public official is put on trial in Congress with the Senate acting as the judge) of President Richard Nixon (1913–1994) for his involvement in criminal activity. She also cast one of the first votes for the Equal Rights Amendment, a proposed amendment to the Constitution that if passed would have guaranteed equality of rights to both men and women.

In 1972 New York City changed the way its congressional districts were set up, eliminating Abzug's district. She decided to run against the popular William Fitts Ryan (1922–1972) in the Twentieth District. She lost the primary, but Ryan died before the general election in November. As a result, Abzug became the Democratic candidate in the general election. She won and went on to serve in the House until 1976, when she gave up her seat to run for the Senate, a race she lost to Daniel Patrick Moynihan (1927–). She then

ran in the Democratic mayoral primary in New York but was defeated by Edward Koch (1924–). Never one to give up, she told reporters not to assume that she was finished with politics.

### ***Continuing activism***

Abzug continued to fight for peace and women's rights long after leaving office. President Jimmy Carter (1924–) appointed her as cochair, or joint leader, of the National Advisory Committee for Women. However, after the committee met with President Carter and pointed out that recent cuts in social services were having a negative effect on the nation's women, Abzug was dismissed from the committee. This led to the resignation of several other members, including the other cochair, and caused a massive public outcry against Carter.

Abzug devoted her energies to women's rights up to the final years of her life. As chair of New York City's Commission on the Status of Women, she directed a national campaign to increase the number of women in public office. Her presence at the United Nations 4th Women's Conference in Beijing, China, in 1991, attracted a great deal of attention. On March 31, 1998, after an operation on her heart, Abzug died in New York, bringing to an end a lifelong fight to improve the lives of women, minorities, and the poor.

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## CHINUA ACHEBE

**Born:** November 15, 1930

**Ogidi, Nigeria**

*Nigerian novelist*

Chinua Achebe is one of Nigeria's greatest novelists. His novels are written mainly for an African audience, but having been translated into more than forty languages, they have found worldwide readership.

### *Early life*

Chinua Achebe was born on November 15, 1930, in Ogidi in Eastern Nigeria. His family belonged to the Igbo tribe, and he was the fifth of six children. Representatives of the British government that controlled Nigeria convinced his parents, Isaiah Okafor Achebe and Janet Ileogbunam, to abandon their traditional religion and follow Christianity. Achebe was brought up as a Christian, but he remained curious about the more traditional Nigerian faiths. He was educated at a government college in Umuahia, Nigeria, and graduated from the University College at Ibadan, Nigeria, in 1954.

### *Successful first effort*

Achebe was unhappy with books about Africa written by British authors such as Joseph Conrad (1857–1924) and John Buchan (1875–1940), because he felt the descriptions of African people were inaccurate and insulting. While working for the Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation he composed his first novel, *Things Fall Apart*

(1959), the story of a traditional warrior hero who is unable to adapt to changing conditions in the early days of British rule. The book won immediate international recognition and also became the basis for a play by Biyi Bandele. Years later, in 1997, the Performance Studio Workshop of Nigeria put on a production of the play, which was then presented in the United States as part of the Kennedy Center's African Odyssey series in 1999. Achebe's next two novels, *No Longer At Ease* (1960) and *Arrow of God* (1964), were set in the past as well.

By the mid-1960s the newness of independence had died out in Nigeria, as the country faced the political problems common to many of the other states in modern Africa. The Igbo, who had played a leading role in Nigerian politics, now began to feel that the Muslim Hausa people of Northern Nigeria considered the Igbos second-class citizens. Achebe wrote *A Man of the People* (1966), a story about a crooked Nigerian politician. The book was published at the very moment a military takeover removed the old political leadership. This made some Northern military officers suspect that Achebe had played a role in the takeover, but there was never any evidence supporting the theory.

### *Political crusader*

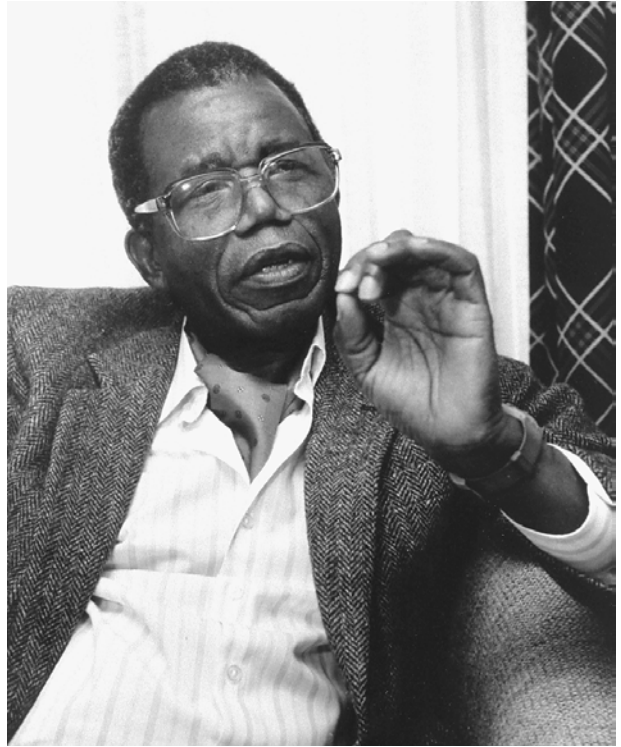
During the years when Biafra attempted to break itself off as a separate state from Nigeria (1967–70), however, Achebe served as an ambassador (representative) to Biafra. He traveled to different countries discussing the problems of his people, especially the starving and slaughtering of Igbo children. He wrote articles for newspapers and maga-

zines about the Biafran struggle and founded the Citadel Press with Nigerian poet Christopher Okigbo. Writing a novel at this time was out of the question, he said during a 1969 interview: "I can't write a novel now; I wouldn't want to. And even if I wanted to, I couldn't. I can write poetry—something short, intense, more in keeping with my mood." Three volumes of poetry emerged during this time, as well as a collection of short stories and children's stories.

After the fall of the Republic of Biafra, Achebe continued to work at the University of Nigeria at Nsukka, and devoted time to the Heinemann Educational Books' Writers Series (which was designed to promote the careers of young African writers). In 1972 Achebe came to the United States to become an English professor at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst (he taught there again in 1987). In 1975 he joined the faculty at the University of Connecticut. He returned to the University of Nigeria in 1976. His novel *Anthills of the Savanna* (1987) tells the story of three boyhood friends in a West African nation and the deadly effects of the desire for power and wanting to be elected "president for life." After its release Achebe returned to the United States and teaching positions at Stanford University, Dartmouth College, and other universities.

### Later years

Back in Nigeria in 1990 to celebrate his sixtieth birthday, Achebe was involved in a car accident on one of the country's dangerous roads. The accident left him paralyzed from the waist down. Doctors recommended he go back to the United States for good to receive better medical care, so he accepted a



Chinua Achebe.

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teaching position at Bard College, Annandale-on-Hudson, New York. In 1999, after a nine-year absence, Achebe visited his homeland, where his native village of Ogidi honored him for his dedication to the myths and legends of his ancestors. In 2000 Achebe's nonfiction book *Home and Exile*, consisting of three essays, was published by Oxford University Press.

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## ABIGAIL ADAMS

**Born:** November 22, 1744

**Weymouth, Massachusetts**

**Died:** October 28, 1818

**Quincy, Massachusetts**

*American political advisor and first lady*

**T**hough she believed her main role in life to be wife and mother, Abigail Adams also was a behind-the-scenes stateswoman. She used her talents to maintain her family during the many absences of her husband, John Adams, the second president of the United States, and to advise her husband about women's rights and slavery. Her detailed letters with her husband, family, and friends provide a historical record of the times and show her to have been a woman ahead of her time.

### *Early life*

Abigail Smith was born in Weymouth, Massachusetts, on November 11, 1744, to William and Elizabeth Quincy Smith. Her well-educated father was the minister of the North Parish Congregational Church of Weymouth. Although many of Abigail's relatives were well-to-do merchants and ship captains, she was raised in a simple, rural set-

ting. She was educated at home, learning domestic skills, such as sewing, fine needlework, and cooking, along with reading and writing. She took advantage of her father's extensive library to broaden her knowledge. Her lack of formal education became a lifelong regret. As an adult, she favored equal education for women. She once argued that educated mothers raise educated children.

On October 25, 1764, Abigail married John Adams, a struggling, Harvard-educated country lawyer nine years her senior. Although John Adams was not from a prominent family, the couple was well matched intellectually and the marriage was a happy one. He admired and encouraged Abigail's outspokenness and intelligence. She supported him by running the family farm, raising their children, listening to him, and trying to help him with his problems.

### *Early political years*

During the first few years of their marriage, John Adams lived mostly in Boston, Massachusetts, building his law career and becoming involved with the growing political unrest. This political unrest was brought about by the English government's attempts to tighten control over its colonies through the passage of laws and new taxes that many colonists did not support. Abigail, however, remained at Braintree (later Quincy), Massachusetts, to run the family farm. Although women at that time did not normally handle business affairs, Abigail traded livestock, hired help, bought land, oversaw construction, and supervised the planting and harvesting. "I hope in time to have the reputation of being as good a Farmess as my partner has of being a good Statesman," she once wrote.

During the next few years, hostilities between the American colonies and Great Britain increased, forcing John Adams away from home more often. He was chosen as a delegate to the First Continental Congress. (The congress was a group of colonial representatives who met in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on September 5, 1774, and took a stand against the British government's policy of passing laws over the colonists without colonial representation.) He traveled constantly in addition to those duties, trying to earn as much money as he could practicing law. He tried to make these difficult times easier by writing long letters to Abigail, sometimes several a day. She, in turn, wrote to her husband of her own loneliness, doubts, and fears. She suffered from migraines and chronic insomnia. Despite her own bouts with illness, she gave birth to five children. One daughter, Susanna, born in 1768, lived for only a year.



*Abigail Adams.*

*Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery.*

### ***War affects the family***

When the Revolutionary War (1775–83) began with the battles of Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts on April 17, 1775, John Adams was called back to the Continental Congress. On June 15, 1775, the Second Continental Congress made George Washington commander in chief of the American army. The Congress also set up a government for the colonies. A year later, on July 4, 1776, the Congress approved the Declaration of Independence, in which the American colonies declared their independence from the government of Great Britain. During the war Abigail provided meals and lodging to soldiers who stopped at the Adams' home at all hours of the day and

night. In the fall of 1775, the inhabitants of Braintree suffered an epidemic of dysentery, an often-fatal bowel infection. Abigail had to nurse her sick relatives in addition to caring for her children. Her mother and five other members of her family eventually died from the illness.

As the fighting drew closer to Boston, Abigail Adams wrote many letters describing the events of the time. In a letter written in March 1776, she urged her husband to take women's rights into consideration if and when the colonies gained independence: "In the new code of laws which I suppose it will be necessary for you to make, I desire you



would remember the ladies and be more generous and favorable to them than your ancestors . . . If particular care and attention is not paid to the ladies, we are determined to foment [promote] a rebellion, and will not hold ourselves bound by any laws in which we have no voice or representation.”

### *John Adams is sent to Europe*

As the war continued, John Adams was sent to Europe to work on treaties with other countries and to seek loans for the colonies. He took one or two of his sons on these assignments, which continued after the war ended, giving America its independence from Great Britain in 1783. These constant separations were difficult for Abigail Adams, but she supported her husband. She wrote that she “found his honor and reputation much dearer to [her] than [her] own present pleasure and happiness.”

After five years, Abigail and her daughter, Nabby, joined her husband and sons in England. During the years in Europe, Abigail acted as hostess for both political and social gatherings and as an advisor to her husband. In April 1788, five years after Abigail’s arrival, the family returned home.

### *John Adams is elected*

After the American Revolution ended, the newly independent country of the United States needed a president. When the votes were counted in March 1789, George Washington (1732–1799) was the clear presidential winner. At the time, the person with the most votes became president, while the person with the next largest number became vice president. John Adams placed second and became vice president. Although Abigail

Adams had been upset by her husband’s earlier political assignments, which forced him to be away from home for years at a time, she fully supported his decision to accept the vice presidency. The family moved to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, where the federal government was located at the time. Abigail assumed the role of hostess, welcoming visitors to the Adams’s home. However, she returned to Braintree the next spring with her son, Thomas, who had fallen ill.

When Washington retired in 1797, John Adams ran for president and won the election. His wife joined him in Philadelphia in May. Abigail Adams quickly settled in as first lady; her husband discussed many important problems with her and often followed her advice. Abigail kept writing letters to friends and even continued managing the Quincy (formerly Braintree) farm through correspondence with her sister, Mary Cranch.

Whereas John Adams had never been in finer spirits, Abigail Adams became exhausted and ill with fever on a trip home to Quincy in the summer of 1797. This led to yet another separation when the president returned to Philadelphia in November. Abigail eventually recovered and returned to Philadelphia the next year, staying for the rest of her husband’s term.

### *Retirement to Quincy*

After losing his bid for reelection in 1800, John Adams retired to life on the farm. Abigail Adams continued to keep herself busy maintaining her home. The family remained plagued with illness. Both Mary Cranch and her husband died within days of each other. Nabby Adams had been diagnosed with cancer and underwent an opera-

tion. John Adams injured his leg in an accident and was unable to walk for several weeks. As always, Abigail Adams cared for them all.

In October of 1818, Abigail Adams suffered a stroke. She died quietly on October 28, 1818, surrounded by her family. John Adams lived several more years, passing away on July 4, 1826. Abigail Adams has the distinction of being the first woman in U.S. history to be the wife of one president (John Adams) and the mother of another (John Quincy Adams [1767–1848]).

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## ANSEL ADAMS

**Born:** February 20, 1902

**San Francisco, California**

**Died:** April 22, 1984

**Carmel, California**

*American photographer*

Ansel Adams was a masterful photographer and a lifelong conservationist (a person who works to preserve and protect the environment) who encouraged understanding of, and respect for, the natural environment. Although he spent a large part of his career in commercial photography, he is best known for his photographs of landscapes.

### Early life

Ansel Easton Adams, the only child of Charles Hitchcock and Olive Bray Adams, was born on February 20, 1902, in San Francisco, California, near the Golden Gate Bridge. In 1906 an aftershock from the famous earthquake of that year threw him to the floor and gave him a badly broken nose. His father, a successful businessman who owned an insurance agency and a chemical factory, sent him to private, as well as public, schools. Adams was shy and self-conscious about his nose and had problems in school. He received only an eighth-grade education, preferring to learn mainly through following his own interests. From a young age he enjoyed the outdoors, taking many long walks and exploring.

At age twelve Adams began playing the piano. He was serious about music and decided to pursue it as a career. But he was also interested in photography. A family trip to Yosemite National Park in 1916, where he made his first amateur photos, is said to have determined his direction in life. He then found a job as a photo technician for a commercial firm, which helped him learn more about his hobby. In 1919 he joined the Sierra Club, an organization devoted to protecting the wilderness of the Sierra Nevada. He spent



Ansel Adams.

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the next few summers working as a caretaker in the organization's headquarters in Yosemite Valley. Later in life, from 1936 to 1970, Adams was president of the Sierra Club, one of the many distinguished positions that he held.

In the 1920s Adams was spending as much time as he could in the Sierra Nevada, hiking, exploring, and taking photographs. He became friendly with leaders of the Sierra Club, had photos and writings printed in the club's official publication, and became more involved with the conservation movement. He even met his wife, Virginia Best, in Yosemite. They were married in 1928 and had two children.

### *Photography career*

Ansel Adams gave up on the piano and decided to become a full-time professional photographer at about the time that some of his work was published in limited edition collections, such as *Parmelian Prints of the High Sierras* (1927) and *Taos Pueblo* (1930), with text written by Mary Austin. His first important one-man show was held in San Francisco in 1932 at the M. H. de Young Memorial Museum.

Adams went on to open the Ansel Adams Gallery for the Arts. He also taught, lectured, and worked on advertising assignments in the San Francisco area. During the 1930s he also began his extensive publications on methods of photography, insisting throughout his life on the importance of careful craftsmanship. In 1936 Alfred Stieglitz (1864–1946) gave Adams a one-man show in his New York gallery—only the second time the work of a young photographer was exhibited by Stieglitz.

In 1937 Adams moved to Yosemite Valley close to his major subject and began publishing a stream of volumes, including *Sierra Nevada: The John Muir Trail* (1938), *Illustrated Guide to Yosemite Valley* (1940), *Yosemite and the High Sierra* (1948), and *My Camera in Yosemite Valley* (1949).

### *New ideas on photography*

In 1930 Adams met the famous photographer Paul Strand (1890–1976) while they were working in Taos, New Mexico, and the man and his work had a lasting effect on Adams's approach to photography. Strand encouraged Adams to change his approach from a soft expression of subjects to a much

## JOHN ADAMS

clearer, harder treatment, so-called “straight photography.” This idea was further reinforced by his association with the short-lived, but important, group of photographers known as f/64 (referring to the lens opening which guarantees a distinct image), which included Edward Weston (1886–1958) and Imogen Cunningham (1883–1976). This group helped the development of photography as a fine art.

In one sense Ansel Adams's work is an extensive record of what is still left of the wilderness, the shrinking untouched part of the natural environment. Yet to see his work only as photographic images is to miss the main point that he tried to make: without a guiding vision, photography is not necessarily an important activity. The finished product, as Adams saw it, must be thought up before it can be executed. With nineteenth-century artists and philosophers (seekers of wisdom) he shared the belief that this vision must be inspired by life on earth. Photographs, he believed, were not *taken* from the environment but were *made* into something greater than themselves.

Ansel Adams died on April 22, 1984. During his life he was criticized for photographing rocks while the world was falling apart. He responded by suggesting that “the understanding of the . . . world of nature will aid in holding the world of man together.”

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**Born:** October 30, 1735

**Braintree (now Quincy), Massachusetts**

**Died:** July 4, 1826

**Quincy, Massachusetts**

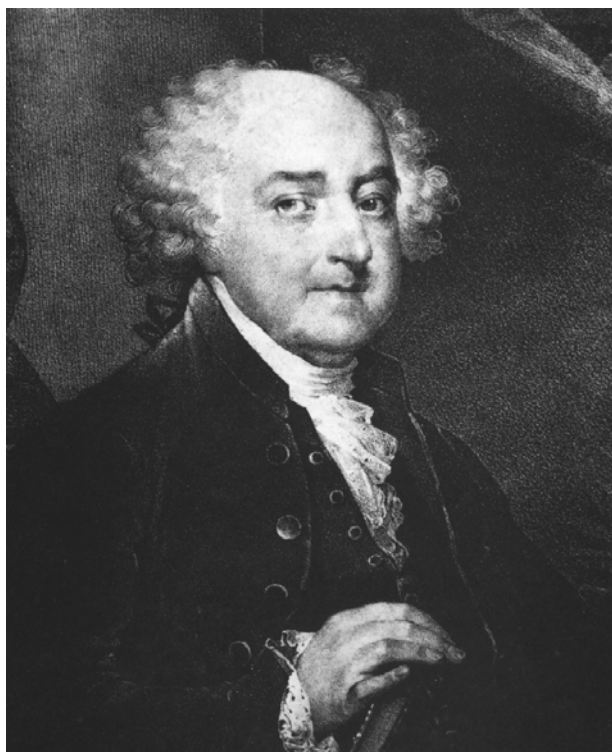
*American president, vice president, and politician*

John Adams, the second president of the United States and the first vice president, also helped in the early years of the republic as a lawyer, writer, congressman, and public speaker. As president, he kept the country at peace when many were calling for war with France. Adams later described his peace decision as “the most splendid diamond in my crown.”

### Early life and education

John Adams was born in Braintree (now Quincy), Massachusetts, on October 30, 1735, the first of three children born to John Adams and Susanna Boylston Adams. His father was a modest but successful farmer and local officeholder. After some initial reluctance, Adams entered Harvard and received his bachelor's degree in 1755. For about a year he taught school in Worcester, Massachusetts.

Although he gave some thought to entering the ministry, Adams decided to study law instead. While developing his legal practice, he participated in town affairs and contributed essays to Boston newspapers. In 1764 he married Abigail Smith of Weymouth, Massachusetts, who was to provide him with important support and assistance during the full life that lay ahead.



*John Adams.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

### ***Early political career***

By 1765 Adams had become known for his skills as a lawyer. After Great Britain passed the Stamp Act, which imposed taxes on printed materials in the American colonies that many viewed as unfair, he moved into the center of Massachusetts political life. He contributed an important series of essays to the Boston newspapers and prepared a series of anti-Stamp Act resolutions for the Braintree town meetings. These resolutions were copied widely throughout the province. In April 1768 Adams moved to Boston and eventually was elected the city's representative to the Massachusetts legislature.

In the spring of 1771, largely for reasons of health, Adams returned to Braintree, where he divided his attention between farming and law. Within a year, however, he was back in Boston. In 1774 he was one of the representatives from Massachusetts to the First Continental Congress. As a representative he helped write letters of protest to Great Britain. He also continued to write newspaper articles about the colonies and their disputes with Britain.

### ***The war and colonial independence***

After the battles of Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts on April 17, 1775, began the Revolutionary War (1775–83), Adams returned to Congress. At this time he believed that independence from Britain would probably be necessary for the American colonies. Congress, however, was not yet willing to agree, and Adams fumed while still more petitions were sent off to England. The best chance of promoting independence, he argued, was for the various colonies to adopt new forms of government. Many provinces sought his advice on setting up these new governments.

By February 1776 Adams was fully committed to American independence. In May, Congress passed a resolution stating that measures should be taken to provide for the “happiness and safety” of the people. Adams wrote the introduction that in effect spelled out the principle of independence. He contributed little to the actual content of the Declaration of Independence but served as “the pillar of its support on the floor of the Congress,” according to Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826). On another committee Adams drew up a model treaty that encouraged Congress to enter into commercial alliances (business deals), but not

political alliances, with European nations. Exhausted by his duties, he left Philadelphia in mid-October for Massachusetts. For the next year or so he traveled from Massachusetts to Philadelphia to serve in Congress.

### ***Foreign assignments***

In November 1777, Congress elected Adams commissioner to France, and in February he left Boston for what would prove to be an extended stay. Adams spent the next year and a half trying to secure badly needed loans for Congress. He sent numerous long letters to friends and family describing European affairs and observed the French court and national life. After coming home to Massachusetts, Adams was asked by Congress to return to Europe to help negotiate the terms of a peace agreement, which would mark the end of the American Revolution, and then to work on a commercial treaty with Great Britain. The treaty of peace was signed on September 3, 1783.

Before returning permanently to the United States, Adams spent three years as American minister to the Court of Saint James in London. He was unable to make much progress there because relations between the United States and Britain just after the American Revolution were so strained. He also did not have the full support of Congress. Adams eventually resigned and returned to Boston.

### ***The presidency***

Once back in Boston, Adams began the final stage of his political career. He was elected vice president in 1789 and served for two terms under President George Washington (1732–1799). Adams was unhappy in

this post; he felt that he lacked the authority to accomplish much. In 1796, despite a strong challenge from Thomas Jefferson and the choice of his own Federalist Party (an early political party that supported a strong federal government) to run a candidate against him, Adams was elected as the second president of the United States.

Adams took office on March 4, 1797. From the beginning his presidency was a stormy one. His cabinet proved difficult to control, and many foreign policy problems arose. The French Revolution (1787–99) and fighting between England and France caused many Americans to take the sides of both those countries. Still others wanted the United States to remain neutral. Adams found himself caught in the middle.

Although anti-French feelings were running high, President Adams committed himself to a plan of peace with France. This decision enraged most of his opponents. The president's attempts to keep peace made sense; America was still young and not fully established, and entering into an unnecessary war could have been a disaster. Many members of his own Federalist Party were opposed to him, however, and in the end Adams lost the next election to Jefferson by a narrow margin. He was so disappointed over his rejection by the American people that he refused to stay to welcome his successor into office.

John Adams spent the remainder of his life at home on his farm. He retained a lively interest in public affairs, particularly when they involved the rising career of his son, John Quincy Adams (1767–1848), who would also become president. Adams divided his time between overseeing his farm and writing letters about his personal experi-

ences as well as more general issues of the day. He died at the age of ninety-one in Quincy, Massachusetts, just a few hours after Jefferson's death, on July 4, 1826.

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## SAMUEL ADAMS

**Born:** September 27, 1722

**Boston, Massachusetts**

**Died:** October 2, 1803

**Boston, Massachusetts**

*American colonial leader*

The colonial leader Samuel Adams was an influential figure in the years leading up to the American Revolution (1775–83). His newspaper articles and organizational activities helped inspire American colonists to rebel against the British government.

### **Early life and education**

Samuel Adams was born on September 27, 1722, in Boston, Massachusetts, the son of a woman of strong religious beliefs and of a prosperous brewer who was active in local politics. For this reason Adams was familiar at

a young age with Boston politics and politicians. As an adult he would play a strong role in Boston's political resistance to British rule.

The young Adams studied Greek and Latin in a small schoolhouse. He entered Harvard College at age fourteen. When he graduated in 1740 he was not sure what his career should be. He did not want to become a brewer like his father, nor did he want to enter the clergy. Although his father loaned him money to start his own business, Adams did not manage his funds well. As a result he went to work for his father's brewery after all. In 1749 he married Elizabeth Checkley.

For several years Adams struggled in his career. He worked as a tax collector in Boston, but he mismanaged funds and had to pay the difference when his accounts came up short. There seems to have been no charge that he was corrupt, only extremely inefficient. After his first wife died in 1757, he married Elizabeth Wells in 1764. Adams's second wife turned out to be a good manager. His luck had changed, for he was about to move into a political circle that would offer political opportunities unlike any in his past.

### **Political activities**

Adams became active in politics, transforming himself from an inefficient tax gatherer into a leading patriot. As a member of the Caucus Club, one of Boston's local political organizations, Adams helped control local elections in 1764. When Britain began an attempt to tighten control over its American colonies by passing laws such as the Sugar Act (1764), Adams was influential in urging colonists to oppose these measures. The Sugar Act was a tax law imposed by the British aimed at increasing the prices Boston merchants paid

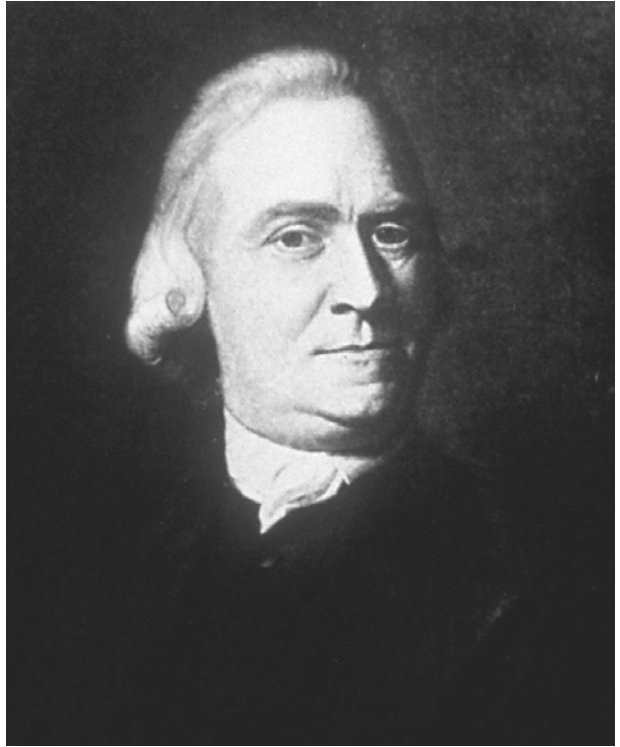
for molasses. Urged on by radicals in the Caucus Club, Adams wrote instructions to local representatives attacking the Sugar Act as an unreasonable law. Adams argued that the law violated colonists' rights because it had not been imposed with the approval of an elected representative. He argued that there should be "no taxation without representation."

During the next decade Adams wrote essays about political ideas that were developing in Boston. Eager publishers hurried his writings into print. Meanwhile the British Parliament passed an even harsher tax law than the Sugar Act. This tax law was the Stamp Act of 1765, which placed a tax on printed materials throughout the American colonies.

Adams's fiery essays and continual activities helped solidify American opinion against the Stamp Act. His columns in the *Boston Gazette* newspaper sent a stream of abuse against the British government. Riding a wave of popularity, Adams was elected into the Massachusetts legislature.

Adams's next move was to protest the Townshend Acts of 1767, which placed customs duties on imported goods. His stand against the Townshend Acts placed him in the front ranks of the leading colonists and gained him the hatred of both British general Thomas Gage (1721–1787) and England's King George III (1738–1820). To protest the Townshend Acts, Adams and other radicals called for an economic boycott of British goods. Though the actual success of the boycott was limited, Adams had proved that an organized and skillful minority could effectively combat a larger but disorganized group.

In the series of events in Massachusetts that led up to the first battles of the Revolu-



*Samuel Adams.*

tion, Adams wrote dozens of newspaper articles that stirred his readers' anger at the British. He appealed to American radicals and communicated with leaders in other colonies. In a sense, Adams was burning himself out. By the time of the battles of Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts on April 17, 1775, which marked the beginning of the Revolutionary War, his career as a revolutionary bandleader had peaked.

### ***Declining power***

Adams served in the Continental Congress between 1774 and 1781. However, after the first session his activities lessened and his



ties to other leaders cooled. He was uncertain about America's next steps and where he would fit into the scheme. Adams served in the 1779 Massachusetts constitutional convention, where he allowed his cousin, John Adams (1735–1826), to do most of the work. He attended the Massachusetts ratifying convention in 1788, but he contributed little to this meeting.

Although his political power had lessened, Adams served in political office for several more years. He was the lieutenant governor of Massachusetts from 1789 to 1793, when he became governor. He was reelected for three terms but did not seek reelection in 1797. Samuel Adams died in Boston on October 2, 1803.

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## JOY ADAMSON

**Born:** January 20, 1910

**Troppau, Silesia, Austria**

**Died:** January 3, 1980

**Shaba Game Reserve, Kenya**

*Austrian naturalist, writer, and painter*

Naturalist and wildlife preservationist Joy Adamson is best known for the books and films depicting her work in Africa, especially her inspirational book *Born Free*. Adamson spent almost forty years living on game reserves in Kenya, and became heavily involved in wildlife preservation activities.

#### **An inspired childhood**

Joy Adamson was born Friederike Victoria Gessner on January 20, 1910, in Troppau, Silesia, Austria, to a wealthy Austrian family. Her parents, Victor and Traute Gessner, divorced when Joy was ten years old. Her father worked as an architect and town planner. Hunting was a favorite sport on her family's estate but, after she shot a deer with the estate's gamekeeper as a teenager, Joy promised herself she would never kill for sport again. Growing up, Joy dreamed of becoming a concert pianist, but her hands were too small. So she turned to such varied fields as psychoanalysis (the study of the mental process), archaeology, and painting. She finally decided on medicine, but never completed her studies.

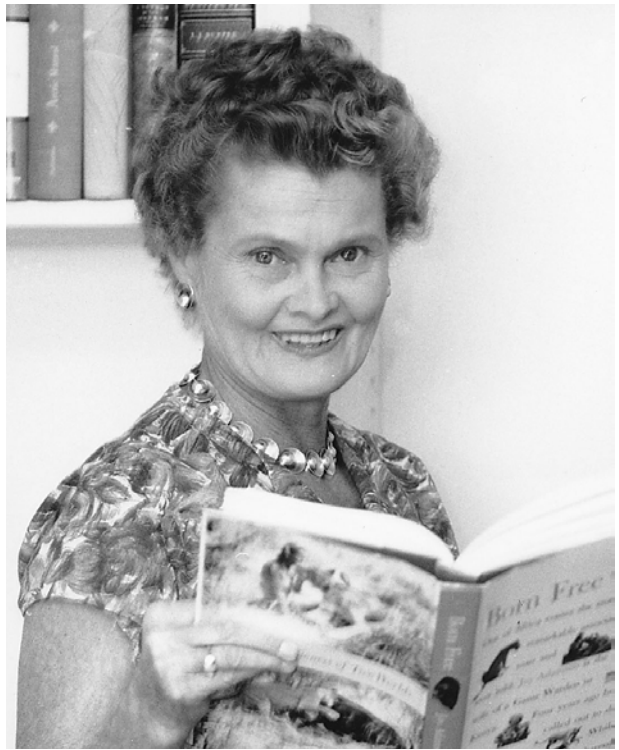
In 1935 Joy married Victor von Klarwill. Her new husband, a Jew, decided that the couple should move to Kenya to escape the rising Nazi movement in Austria. The Nazi movement started in Germany and aimed to "liquidate" or kill all Jews in Europe. Klarwill sent his young wife ahead to Africa. Unfortunately, on the voyage there, she met Peter Bally, a botanist (one who studies plants). When her husband arrived in Kenya, Joy announced her intention to divorce him. She married Bally shortly afterward, in 1938.

Bally traveled through Kenya, studying its plant life, and Joy accompanied him. She began to paint their findings, and eventually completed seven hundred paintings that were published in several books. Within only a few years, however, there was a second divorce, closely followed in 1943 by a third and final marriage for Joy. She had met and fallen in love with George Adamson, a game warden in an outlying area of Kenya. The couple spent the rest of their lives traveling through the Kenyan wilderness together.

### **Working with lions**

George Adamson, as a game warden, often encountered lions and other wildlife during his travels. In 1956 he was forced to kill a lioness that attacked him while trying to protect her three cubs. Two of the cubs were sturdy enough to be sent to a zoo, but the Adamsons kept the third cub, a small female that they named Elsa. In her book, *Born Free*, Joy Adamson tells the story of how she and her husband raised the cub and then had to train it to fend for itself in the wilderness. After a great deal of work with Elsa, the Adamsons knew for certain that they had been successful when they left Elsa in the wild for a week and returned to find that she had killed a waterbuck, an African antelope. Elsa's story in *Born Free* ended with the news that the lioness had three cubs of her own.

In Adamson's two sequels to *Born Free*—*Living Free* and *Forever Free*—she writes about Elsa's cubs: Jispah, Gopa, and Little Elsa. In early 1961, Elsa became sick and died. She has a marker on her grave in the Meru Game Reserve in Kenya. The Adamsons then had to train her cubs, who were too young to be released into the wild,



Joy Adamson.

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to become hunters. Eventually the cubs were released, but were never sighted again.

### **Elsa an inspiration to many**

All three “Elsa” books were extremely popular, and films were made of each of them—the 1966 *Born Free* was the most popular. The stars of the film series, Virginia McKenna and her husband Bill Travers, were so moved by the Adamsons' work that they later founded the Born Free Foundation in England to support wildlife conservation. It is estimated that the “Elsa” series and other Adamson books have been translated into at least thirty-five languages. According to

Adrian House's biography, *The Great Safari: The Lives of George and Joy Adamson, Born Free* served as inspiration for zoologist Iain Douglas-Hamilton, a major activist working to protect the African elephant from extinction. House also notes that anthropologist Desmond Morris credits *Born Free* with affecting an entire generation's attitude towards animals.

After Elsa's death and the release of her cubs, Adamson adopted a young cheetah, Pippa, who had been the house pet of a British army officer. For several years, Pippa was also trained to survive in the wild. Her story is told in Adamson's *The Spotted Sphinx*. Adamson also studied and worked with a variety of other animals, including baby elephants, buffaloes, and colobus monkeys. However, not all of the Adamsons' work with wildlife was successful. One lion that had been returned to the wilderness was destroyed after it returned to areas where humans lived, attacked a child, and killed one of the Adamsons' servants.

### **Wildlife preservation**

As is still the case, preservation of African wildlife was a serious problem in the 1960s and the 1970s. The Kenyan government did not place a high priority on saving wildlife. Even in protected reserves poaching (illegal hunting for profit) was a common event.

Adamson went on an international tour to speak about wildlife preservation in 1962, and became a founder of the World Wildlife Fund and the Elsa Wild Animal Appeal. The money earned from her books was used to set up animal reserves and to fund several preservation organizations. Adamson was

also an early activist in the movement to boycott (to protest the selling and using of) clothing made from animal fur.

### **Mysteriously murdered in the wilderness**

On January 3, 1980, the world heard the shocking news that Joy Adamson had been killed in the Shaba Game Reserve in northern Kenya, where she had been observing leopard behavior. Even more shocking was the original explanation for Adamson's death—that she had been attacked by a lion. Her body had been found on a road near her camp in Mawson, and it quickly became apparent to George Adamson and the authorities that human forces were responsible. Her injuries were caused by stabs from a sword-like weapon, not by a lion's fangs and claws. Plus, her tent had been opened, and the contents of a trunk had been scattered. Although authorities eventually convicted someone for the murder, the true story behind Joy Adamson's death remains a mystery.

A quiet funeral ceremony for Adamson was held near Nairobi, Kenya. Adamson had specified in her will that her ashes be buried in Elsa and Pippa's graves in the Meru Game Reserve. Her husband and several colleagues did just that. They took her ashes, divided them in half, and placed them in the graves of Adamson's two dear friends.

George Adamson carried on his work alone after his wife's murder. On August 20, 1989, George Adamson was also killed in the Kenyan wilderness, along with two coworkers. The murders were blamed on several shifta, or bandit-poachers, who were roaming the area. Nevertheless, the work of Joy and George Adamson lives on, through the books that Joy wrote and the organizations she founded.

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## JANE ADDAMS

**Born:** September 6, 1860

Cedarville, Illinois

**Died:** May 21, 1935

Chicago, Illinois

*American reformer and social worker*

Jane Addams was called the “beloved lady” of American reform. She was a social worker, reformer, and pacifist. One of her most important accomplishments was to create a settlement house, a center that provides services to members of a poor community. Addams founded the most famous settlement house in American history, Hull House, in Chicago, Illinois.

**Family and education**

Jane Addams was born in Cedarville, Illinois, on September 6, 1860. She was the eighth child of John Huy Addams, a successful miller, banker, and landowner. She did not remember her mother, who died when she was three years old. She was devoted to and deeply influenced by her father. He was an idealist and philanthropist

who served as state senator of Illinois from 1854 to 1870.

Although Addams became an activist for the poor, she herself came from a prosperous family. As a young woman she attended Rockford Female Seminary in northern Illinois. There she was not only a fine student but also the class president for four years and the editor of the school magazine. Addams also developed an interest in the sciences, even though such studies were not stressed at the school. After her graduation in 1881 she entered the Women’s Medical College in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. However, after six months she was forced to end her studies to have a spinal operation. Addams was never quite free of illness throughout her life.

**Finding a career**

It took Addams a long time to recover from her operation. During this time she fell into a deep depression. This was partly because of her illness and partly because of her sensitivity to the way women of her status were expected to live in nineteenth-century America. Intelligent middle-class women like Addams were frequently well educated. However, they were expected to live simply as wives and mothers within homes dominated by men. Society discouraged women from putting their talents to use outside the home. Addams traveled in Europe between 1883 and 1885 and spent winters in Baltimore in 1886 and 1887. During this time she searched for comfort in religion. However, she did not find a satisfactory outlet for her abilities until she made a second trip to Europe in 1887. At this time she visited Toynbee Hall, the famous settlement house in London, England.



*Jane Addams.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Toynbee Hall was a social and cultural center in the slums of the East End neighborhood in London. It was designed to introduce young men who wanted to join the ministry to the world of England's urban poor. Addams thought it would be a good idea to provide a similar opportunity for young middle-class American women. She decided "that it would be a good thing to rent a house in a part of the city where many . . . needs are found." She especially wanted to provide opportunities for well-educated young women to "learn of life from life itself."

### *Creation of Hull House*

Hull House was located in one of Chicago's poorest immigrant slums. Addams originally thought Hull House would provide a service to young women who wanted more than a homemaker's life, but it soon developed into a great center for the poor of the neighborhood. Hull House provided a home for working girls, a theater, a boys' club, a day nursery, and numerous other services.

Thousands of people visited Hull House each year. It became the source of inspiration for dozens of similar settlement houses in other cities. Its success also made Addams famous throughout the United States. She became involved in an attempt to reform Chicago's corrupt politics. She served on a commission to help resolve the Pullman railroad strike of 1894. Addams supported workers' rights to organize and spoke and wrote about nearly every reform issue of the day. Her topics ranged from the need for peace to women's right to vote.

### *Voice for reform*

Addams served as an officer for countless reform groups. These groups included the Progressive political party and the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. She served as this group's president in 1915 and attended international peace congresses in a dozen European cities. Addams gained a reputation as a pacifist (a person who is against conflict and war). She won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1931.

Addams also wrote books on a wide range of subjects. Her achievements gained her honorary degrees from several universities and made her an informal adviser to sev-

eral American presidents. She died on May 21, 1935, in Chicago, Illinois.

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## ALFRED ADLER

**Born:** February 7, 1870

Vienna, Austria

**Died:** May 28, 1937

Aberdeen, Scotland

*Austrian psychiatrist*

Austrian psychiatrist Alfred Adler was credited with developing several important theories on the motivation of human behavior. He founded the school of individual psychology, a comprehensive “science of living” that focuses on the uniqueness of the individual and a person’s relationships with society.

### **Childhood and early career**

Alfred Adler was born on February 7, 1870, in a suburb of Vienna, Austria. He was the second of seven children of a Hungarian-born grain merchant. The Adlers were a musical family and Alfred was known for his singing voice. Although he was encouraged

to pursue a career in opera, in his childhood he suffered some illnesses and the death of a younger brother. These experiences contributed greatly to his early decision to become a physician, or medical doctor. He attended classical secondary school and received a degree from the University of Vienna Medical School in 1895. Later, he married Raissa Epstein, a Russian student.

Adler’s early career was marked by enthusiasm for social reform (improvement), often expressed in articles in socialist newspapers. (Socialism is a social system where the goods and services are owned by the government and distributed among the people.) His first professional publication was a social-medicine monograph (pamphlet) on the health of tailors.

In 1902 famed Austrian psychiatrist Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) invited Adler to join a small discussion group, which became the famous Vienna Psychoanalytic Society. Adler was an active member but did not consider himself a pupil or follower of Freud. He could not agree with Freud’s basic assumption that gender (male or female) was the main factor in the development of an individual’s personality. Whereas Freud tried to explain man in terms of his similarity to machines and animals, Adler sought to understand and influence man in terms of what makes man different from machines and animals, such as concepts and values. This humanistic view characterized all the ideas of his theory. In 1911 Adler resigned from Freud’s circle to found his own school.

Adler worked three years of hospital service during World War I (1914–18) when European forces fought for world domination. In 1919 he organized a child-guidance



Alfred Adler.

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clinic in Vienna, and also became a lecturer at the Pedagogical Institute. He was perhaps the first psychiatrist to apply mental hygiene (mental health) in the schools. Working with teachers in child-guidance clinics, he carried out his groundbreaking counseling before a small audience, dealing with the family and teacher as well as the child. This was probably the first “family therapy” and “community psychiatry” on record.

Beginning in 1926, Adler spent much time in the United States lecturing and teaching. When Adolf Hitler's (1889–1945) Nazi

Party rose to power in Austria in 1932, Adler left with his wife and went to New York. On May 28, 1937, he died suddenly while on a lecture tour in Aberdeen, Scotland.

### *Adler's legacy*

Adler left behind many theories and practices that very much influenced the world of psychiatry. Today these concepts are known as Adlerian psychology. His theories focused on the feelings of inferiority, and how each person tries to overcome such feelings by overcompensating (trying too hard to make up for what is lacking). Adler claimed that an individual's lifestyle becomes established by the age of four or five, and he stressed the importance of social forces, or the child's environment, on the development of behavior. He believed that each person is born with the ability to relate to other people and realize the importance of society as a whole.

As a therapist, Adler was a teacher who focused on a patient's mental health, not sickness. Adler encouraged self-improvement by pinpointing the error in patients' lives and correcting it. He thought of himself as an enabler, one who guides the patient through “self-determination,” so that the patients themselves can make changes and improve their state. Adler was a pioneer in that he was one of the first psychiatrists to use therapy in social work, the education of children, and in the treatment of criminals.

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## AESCHYLUS

**Born:** 524 B.C.E.

**Eleusis, Greece**

**Died:** 456 B.C.E.

**Gela, Italy**

*Greek playwright*

The Greek playwright Aeschylus was the first European dramatist whose plays were preserved. He was also the earliest of the great Greek tragedians (writers of serious drama involving disastrous events), and was concerned with the common connection between man and the gods more than any of the other tragedians.

### Early life

Aeschylus was born to a noble and wealthy Athenian family in the Greek town of Eleusis. His father was Euphorion, a wealthy man of the upper class. Aeschylus's education included the writings of Homer (Greek poet who lived during the 800s B.C.E. and wrote the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*). In fact it was Homer who proved most inspiring to Aeschylus when he began to write as a teen. He entered his tragedies into the annual competition in Athens and won his first award as a young adult in 484 B.C.E. Aeschylus's

writings were strongly Athenian and rich with moral authority. He carried home the first place award from the Athens competition thirteen times!

As a young man Aeschylus lived through many exciting events in the history of Athens. Politically the city underwent many constitutional reforms resulting in a democracy. Aeschylus became a soldier and took part in turning back a Persian invasion at the Battle of Marathon (490 B.C.E.). Nevertheless, Aeschylus's plays left a bigger mark in Greek history than any of his battle accomplishments.

### Contributions, style, and philosophy

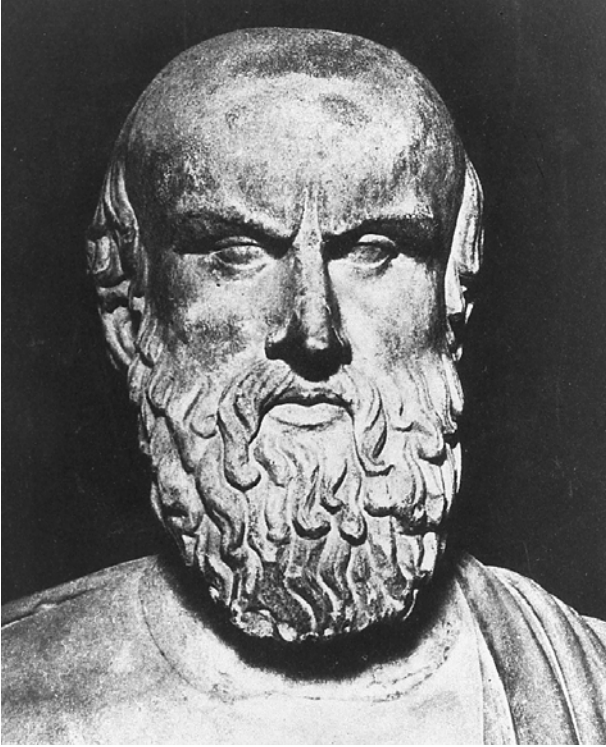
Because Aeschylus was writing for the Greek theater in its beginning stages, he is credited with having introduced many features that are now considered traditional. Formerly plays were written for only one actor and a chorus. Aeschylus added parts for a second and a third actor as well as rich costumes and dance.

Corresponding with his grand style were his grand ideas. Mighty themes and mighty men crossed his stage. Aeschylus has been described as a great theologian (a specialist in the study of faith) because of his literary focus on the workings of the Greek gods.

### The plays

Modern scholarship has shown that the first of Aeschylus's plays was *The Persians*. It is also the only play on a historical subject that has survived in Greek drama. This play is seen from a Persian point of view. His theme sought to show how a nation could suffer due to its pride. Of his ninety plays only seven are still preserved.





Aeschylus.

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*Prometheus Bound* is perhaps Aeschylus' most well-known tragedy because of his depiction of the famous Prometheus, who is chained to a mountain peak and cannot move. He is being punished for defying the authority of the god Zeus by bringing fire to mankind. Zeus is depicted as a bully and Prometheus as a suffering but defiant rebel. Both are guilty of pride. Both must learn through suffering: Zeus to exercise power with mercy and justice, and Prometheus to respect authority.

Aeschylus' masterpiece is the *Oresteia*, the only preserved trilogy from Greek

drama. The three plays are *Agamemnon*, *The Choephoroi*, and *The Eumenides*. Though they form separate dramas, they are united in their common theme of justice. King Agamemnon returns to his home after the Trojan War (490–480 B.C.E.; a war in which the Greeks fought against the Trojans and which ended with the destruction of Troy) only to be murdered by his scheming wife, Clytemnestra, and her lover. The king's children seek revenge that ultimately leads to their trial by the gods. The theme of evil compounding evil is powerfully written.

Albin Lesky has noted, "Aeschylean tragedy shows faith in a sublime [splendid] and just [fair] world order, and is in fact inconceivable [unthinkable] without it. Man follows his difficult, often terrible path through guilt and suffering, but it is the path ordained [designed] by god which leads to knowledge of his laws. All comes from his will."

According to legend, Aeschylus was picked up by an eagle who thought he was a turtle. The eagle had been confused by Aeschylus's bald head. Aeschylus was killed when the eagle realized its mistake and dropped him.

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## SPIRO AGNEW

**Born:** November 9, 1918

**Baltimore, Maryland**

**Died:** September 17, 1996

**Ocean City, Maryland**

*American vice president and governor*

Between the time of his nomination as Richard Nixon's running mate in August 1968 and his resignation in October 1973, Vice President Spiro Agnew was a leading spokesman for "The Silent Majority," a term used by Nixon to describe conservative, middle-class, white American voters. After being found guilty of tax evasion, Agnew became the second United States vice president to resign from office. (John Calhoun, Andrew Jackson's vice president, resigned in 1832.)

### *The early years*

Spiro Theodore Agnew was born November 9, 1918, in Baltimore, Maryland. He was the son of Theodore S. Agnew and his Virginia-born wife, Margaret Pollard Akers. Spiro Agnew was, in his own words, a "typical middle class youth" who spoke and wrote very well and gained experience writing speeches for his father's many appearances before ethnic and community groups.

Agnew attended public schools in Baltimore before enrolling in Johns Hopkins University in 1937, where he studied chemistry. After three years he transferred to law school at the University of Baltimore, where he attended night classes. He supported himself by working for an insurance company, where

he met Elinor (Judy) Isabel Judefind, his future wife.

### *The war years*

In September 1941 Agnew was drafted into the army, three months before the United States entered World War II (1939–45). After the attack on Pearl Harbor, Agnew was sent to Fort Knox to train as a tank officer. He married Judy in 1942 before leaving for combat duty in Europe. Agnew commanded a tank company, was awarded a Bronze Star (a medal given for outstanding service performed under combat conditions), and was discharged with the rank of captain. After his army discharge, Agnew went back to the University of Baltimore Law School and graduated in 1947. He completed advanced law studies at the University of Maryland in 1949 and passed the Maryland Bar (an association that oversees the state's lawyers) exam. He could now practice law in the state of Maryland.

After spending a brief time with a Baltimore law firm, Agnew moved to Towson, a suburb of Baltimore, and opened his own law practice. When the Korean War (1950–53) broke out, he was recalled to active duty for a year. (During the Korean war, the United States supported the government of South Korea in its fight against a takeover by the communist government of North Korea.)

### *Early political career*

After returning from active military duty, Agnew restarted his own law firm and became involved in Baltimore County's local politics. He joined the Republican Party in 1956 and began working for national and local campaigns.



*Spiro Agnew.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Agnew's first term in public office came in 1957 when he was appointed to a one-year term on the Baltimore County Zoning Board of Appeals. Agnew was reappointed for a three-year term in 1958 and eventually became the board chairman. He ran for associate circuit court judge in 1960, but lost, coming in fifth in a five-person race. Agnew then ran for chief county executive in 1962 and won. He was the first Republican executive elected in Baltimore County in seventy years.

#### ***From governor to vice president***

Agnew's term as county executive was considered successful, and he became more

popular. In 1966 he became the Republican candidate for governor of Maryland. His main opponent, George Mahoney, was strongly opposed to civil rights. Agnew defeated Mahoney and became the fifty-fifth governor of Maryland.

As governor, Agnew was known as a progressive leader with moderate civil rights beliefs. While in office he passed several tax reform laws, increased funding for antipoverty programs, repealed a law banning interracial marriage, spoke out against the death penalty, and drafted tough clean water legislation. However, by 1968 civil unrest had grown stronger throughout the United States. Protests had begun against the Vietnam War (a war in Vietnam fought from 1955 to 1975 in which the anti-Communist government of South Vietnam, supported by the United States, fought against a takeover by the Communist government of North Vietnam). Riots broke out in many major cities after the assassination of Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968). Governor Agnew ordered state police to arrest civil rights demonstrators, encouraged the use of military force to control civil disturbances, and spoke out harshly against Vietnam War protesters.

At the 1968 Republican Convention in Miami Beach, Florida, Richard M. Nixon (1913–1994) was nominated as the Republican presidential candidate. Nixon chose Agnew as his vice presidential running mate. As part of his acceptance speech, Agnew said, "I fully recognize that I am an unknown quantity to many of you." Those who considered Agnew unqualified for national office began saying "Spiro who?" In truth, as the governor of a relatively small southern state, he was relatively unknown within the party. Nixon chose Agnew because he wanted

someone who was a southerner, an ethnic American, an experienced executive, a civil rights moderate, and a proven Republican vote-getter with appeal to Democrats.

The Nixon-Agnew victory over Hubert Humphrey (1911–1978) and Edmund S. Muskie (1914–1996) was close but clear cut, with a half million popular votes separating winners and losers. After the election, Agnew became the first vice president to have a White House office when Nixon gave him an office in the West Wing.

### ***Controversial speeches and illegal activities***

As vice president, Agnew began using attention-getting speeches to attack opponents of the Nixon administration. Patrick Buchanan (1938–), Cynthia Rosenwald, and William Safire (1929–) drafted many of his speeches. The vice president soon became known for his verbal attacks against college radicals, American permissiveness, and the media. At Ohio State University's graduation ceremonies in 1969, Agnew criticized the students' parents, calling their leadership a "sniveling hand-wringing power structure."

Nixon again chose Agnew as his running mate for the 1972 elections, and they overwhelmingly defeated their Democrat opponents, George McGovern (1922–) and R. Sargent Shriver (1921–). Early in his second term as vice president, Agnew came under investigation for crimes supposedly committed while he was an elected Maryland official. He was accused of accepting bribes from engineers who wanted contracts with the state of Maryland. He was also accused of failing to report campaign contributions as income. The situation became increasingly tense when Nixon came under attack for his

alleged involvement in a break-in at the Democratic Party's headquarters in the Watergate complex. There were rumors that both the president and the vice president might be impeached (tried in Congress for charges of misconduct in office).

### ***The end of a political career***

On October 1, 1973, Agnew pleaded "no contest" in federal court to one misdemeanor charge of income tax evasion. He was fined \$10,000 and put on probation for three years. He was also forced to resign from office. Agnew's friend Frank Sinatra (1915–1998) loaned him \$160,000 to pay legal expenses, back taxes, and other fees. Agnew was disbarred (not allowed to work as a lawyer) by the state of Maryland in 1974.

After leaving politics, Agnew became an international business consultant and the owner of several properties in Palm Springs, California, and in Maryland. In his 1980 memoir, titled *Go Quietly or Else*, Agnew implied that Nixon and Alexander M. Haig (1924–), Nixon's chief of staff, planned to assassinate him if he refused to resign, and that Haig told him "to go quietly . . . or else." Agnew also wrote a novel, *The Canfield Decision* (1986), about a vice president who was "destroyed by his own ambition."

In 1981 Agnew was sued by three citizens of Maryland who sought to have the money he had reportedly received illegally from the state returned. After a few years the citizens won their case, and Agnew had to reimburse \$248,735 to the state.

Agnew died of leukemia in Ocean City, Maryland, on September 17, 1996, at the age of 77.

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## ALVIN AILEY

**Born:** January 5, 1931

Rogers, Texas

**Died:** December 1, 1989

New York, New York

*African American dancer and choreographer*

**A**lvin Ailey founded the Alvin Ailey American Dance Theatre and won international fame as both a dancer and choreographer, a creator and arranger of dance performances.

**Rough beginning**

Alvin Ailey Jr. was born to Alvin and Lula Elizabeth Ailey on January 5, 1931, in Rogers, Texas. He was an only child, and his father, a laborer, left the family when Alvin Jr. was less than one year old. At the age of six, Alvin Jr. moved with his mother to Navasota, Texas. As he recalled in an interview in the *New York Daily News Magazine*, "There was the white school up on the hill, and the black Baptist church, and the segregated [only members of one race allowed] theaters and

neighborhoods. Like most of my generation, I grew up feeling like an outsider, like someone who didn't matter."

In 1942 Ailey and his mother moved to Los Angeles, California, where his mother found work in an aircraft factory. Ailey became interested in athletics and joined his high school gymnastics team and played football. An admirer of dancers Gene Kelly (1912–1996) and Fred Astaire (1899–1987), he also took tap dancing lessons at a neighbor's home. His interest in dance grew when a friend took him to visit the modern dance school run by Lester Horton, whose dance company (a group of dancers who perform together) was the first in America to admit members of all races. Unsure of what opportunities would be available for him as a dancer, however, Ailey left Horton's school after one month. After graduating from high school in 1948, Ailey considered becoming a teacher. He entered the University of California in Los Angeles to study languages. When Horton offered him a scholarship in 1949 Ailey returned to the dance school. He left again after one year, however, this time to attend San Francisco State College.

**Early career**

For a time Ailey danced in a nightclub in San Francisco, California, then he returned to the Horton school to finish his training. When Horton took the company east for a performance in New York City in 1953, Ailey was with him. When Horton died suddenly, the young Ailey took charge as the company's artistic director. Following Horton's style, Ailey choreographed two pieces that were presented at the Jacob's Pillow Dance Festival in Becket, Massachusetts. After the works

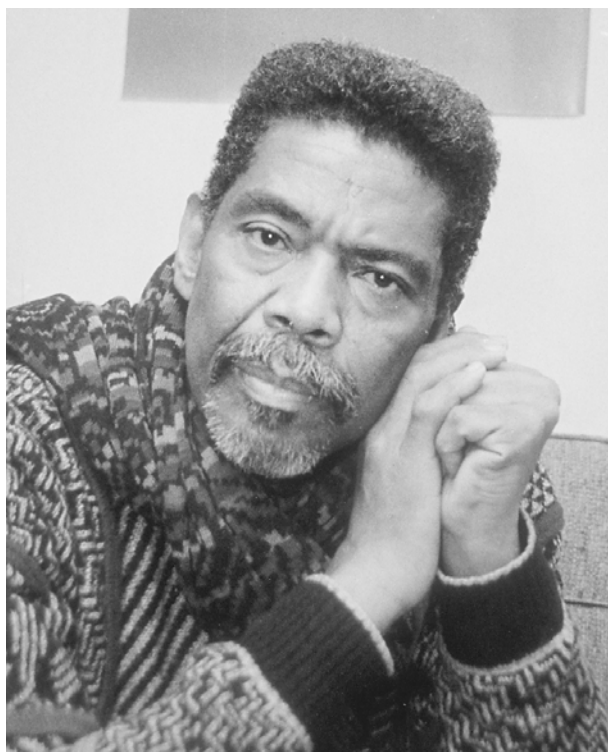
received poor reviews from the festival manager, the troupe broke up.

Despite the setback, Ailey's career stayed on track. A Broadway producer invited him to dance in *House of Flowers*, a musical based on Truman Capote's (1924–1984) book. Ailey continued taking dance classes while performing in the show. He also studied ballet and acting. From the mid-1950s through the early 1960s Ailey appeared in many musical productions on and off Broadway, among them: *The Carefree Tree*; *Sing, Man, Sing*; *Jamaica*; and *Call Me By My Rightful Name*. He also played a major part in the play *Tiger, Tiger, Burning Bright*.

In 1958 Ailey and another dancer with an interest in choreographing recruited dancers to perform several concerts at the 92nd Street Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Association in New York City, a place where modern dances and the works of new choreographers were seen. Ailey's first major piece, *Blues Suite*, was inspired by blues music. The performance drew praise. Ailey then scheduled a second concert to present his own works, and then a third, which featured his most famous piece, *Revelations*. Accompanied by the elegant jazz music of Duke Ellington (1899–1974), *Revelations* pulled the audience into African American religious life.

### ***Established own dance company***

In 1959 Ailey established the Alvin Ailey American Dance Theater, a group of eight black dancers. One year later, the theater became the resident dance company at the Clark Center for the Performing Arts in New York City. By the mid-1960s Ailey, who struggled with his weight, gave up dancing in favor



Alvin Ailey.

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of choreography. He also oversaw business details as the director of his ambitious dance company. By 1968 the company had received funding from private and public organizations but still had money problems, even as it brought modern dance to audiences around the world. Ailey also had the leading African American soloist (a person who performs by oneself) of modern dance, Judith Jamison (1944–). Having employed Asian and white dancers since the mid-1960s, Ailey had also integrated (included people of different races) his company. In 1969 the company moved to Brooklyn, New York, as the resident dance

company of the Brooklyn Academy of Music, an arts center with three theaters.

In the early 1960s the company performed in Southeast Asia and Australia as part of an international cultural program set up by President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963). Later the company traveled to Brazil, Europe, and West Africa. Ailey also choreographed dances for other companies, including *Feast of Ashes* for the Joffrey Ballet and *Anthony and Cleopatra* for the Metropolitan Opera at Lincoln Center in New York City. Ailey worked on projects with other artists, including one with Duke Ellington for the American Ballet Theater. For Ailey the decade peaked with the performance of *Masekela Language*, a dance based on the music of Hugh Masekela, a black South African trumpeter who lived in exile for speaking out against apartheid (South Africa's policy of separation based on race).

### **Ailey's Cry**

By the late 1970s Ailey's company was one of America's most popular dance troupes. Its members continued touring around the world, with U.S. State Department backing. They were the first modern dancers to visit the former Soviet Union since the 1920s. In 1971 Ailey's company was asked to return to the City Center Theater in New York City after a performance featured Ailey's celebrated solo, *Cry*. Danced by Judith Jamison, she made it one of the troupe's best known pieces.

Dedicated to "all black women everywhere—especially our mothers," the piece depicts the struggles of different generations of black American women. It begins with the unwrapping of a long white scarf that becomes

many things during the course of the dance, and ends with an expression of belief and happiness danced to the late 1960s song, "Right On, Be Free." Of this and of all his works Ailey told John Gruen in *The Private World of Ballet*, "I am trying to express something that I feel about people, life, the human spirit, the beauty of things. . . ."

### **Later years**

Ailey suffered a breakdown in 1980 that put him in the hospital for several weeks. At the time he had lost a close friend, was going through a midlife crisis, and was experiencing money problems. Still, he continued to work, and his reputation as a founding father of modern dance grew during the decade.

Ailey received many honors for his choreography, including a *Dance* magazine award in 1975; the Springarn Medal, given to him by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) in 1979; and the Capezio Award that same year. In 1988 he was awarded the Kennedy Center Honors prize. Ailey died of a blood disorder on December 1, 1989. Thousands of people flocked to the memorial service held for him at the Cathedral of St. John the Divine.

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# MADELEINE ALBRIGHT

**Born:** May 15, 1937

**Prague, Czechoslovakia**

*Czech-born American businessperson, speaker, and secretary of state*

On January 23, 1997, when Madeleine Albright was sworn in as the United States secretary of state, she became the first woman to hold this position. Albright's impressive career highlights a combination of scholarly research and political activity.

## ***Family background and education***

Madeleine Korbel Albright was born Marie Jana Korbel on May 15, 1937, in Prague, Czechoslovakia (now in the Czech Republic). Her grandmother gave her the nickname "Madeleine" when she was young, and her name was legally changed when she was an adolescent. Her father, Josef Korbel, was a member of the Czechoslovakian diplomatic service (a person who deals with international relations). Her mother, Anna, was a homemaker. Between 1937 and 1948 her family lived in Prague, Czechoslovakia; Belgrade, Yugoslavia; and London, England.

In 1948, while working for the United Nations, Madeleine's father lived in India while the rest of the family lived in New York. When the Communists overthrew the Czechoslovakian government, her father was sentenced to death. Madeleine was eleven years old when her family was given political asylum, or a safe place to live, in the United States. Albright was strongly influenced by

her father and credits his influence for her own view of the world.

After becoming a U.S. citizen, Albright pursued an academic career. Her education reflects her interest in politics. She studied political science at Wellesley College and graduated in 1959. Albright then went on to earn advanced degrees in international affairs from the Department of Public Law and Government at Columbia University.

Albright married Joseph Medill Patterson Albright three days after graduating from Wellesley. She and her husband lived in Chicago, Illinois, and Long Island, New York, before moving to Washington, D.C. She and her husband had three daughters before they divorced.

## ***Early political career***

Albright began her political career by working for the unsuccessful presidential campaign in 1976 of Senator Edmund S. Muskie (1914–1996). She then served as Senator Muskie's chief legislative assistant from 1976 to 1978.

In 1978 Albright was asked by one of her former professors at Columbia University, Zbigniew Brzezinski (1928–), National Security Adviser under President Jimmy Carter (1924–), to be a legislative liaison for the National Security Council. She remained in this position until 1981. Albright spent the following year writing *Poland, the Role of the Press in Political Change*, about the role played by the press during a time of unusual political change in Poland during the 1980s.

Albright's next important career milestone came in 1982, when she joined the faculty of Georgetown University. At George-





*Madeleine Albright.*

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town she became a research professor of international affairs and the director of women students enrolled at the university's School of Foreign Service.

Albright became advisor to presidential candidate Walter Mondale (1928–) and his running mate, Geraldine Ferraro (1935–), during their 1984 presidential race. She was senior policy advisor to Michael S. Dukakis (1933–) during his 1988 presidential campaign. In 1989, Albright became president of the Center for National Policy, a nonprofit research organization. Over the next few years she was appointed to the boards of several institutions, including Wellesley College,

the Black Student Fund, and the Washington Urban League.

### ***Ambassador to the United Nations***

When Bill Clinton (1946–) sought the presidential nomination in 1992, Albright supported him. She served as his senior foreign policy advisor during his campaign. In the transition period she served as foreign policy liaison, or the person who is responsible for communicating information about foreign policy, in the White House. Then, Clinton chose Albright to be the U.S. ambassador to the United Nations (UN).

Albright immediately became a major force at the UN. She was familiar with world politics and she represented the United States, the UN's largest contributor to its activities and budget. As a UN ambassador, Albright learned to balance the needs of three different groups: the Clinton administration, the UN delegates, and the American public. She was involved in debates over UN peacekeeping activities and the direction of American foreign policy.

### ***First woman to serve as Secretary of State***

In 1996 Clinton nominated Albright for secretary of state and the U.S. Senate unanimously confirmed her nomination. On January 23, 1997, Madeleine Albright was sworn in as secretary of state. She became the highest-ranking female within the United States government.

Shortly after her confirmation, Albright's cousin, Dasha Sima, revealed to reporters at the *Washington Post* that Albright's family had been Czechoslovakian Jews, not Catholics as she had believed, and that three of her grandparents had died in concentration camps.

Before World War II (1939–45) the Nazi government in Germany had set up concentration camps to hold people who they saw as enemies of the state. Eventually minority groups, including Jews, were forced into these camps, where many people died during the course of the war. (Albright was quoted in *Newsweek* as saying, “I have been proud of the heritage that I have known about and I will be equally proud of the heritage that I have just been given.” A few months later, Albright flew to Prague and was honored by Czech Republic president Vaclav Havel (1936–).

Albright began a peace mission in the Middle East in the fall of 1997, first meeting with Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu (1949–), then with Palestinian leader Yasir Arafat (1929–), Syrian President Hafez al-Assad (1930–2000), Egyptian President Hosny Mubarak (1928–), King Fahd ibn Abdul Aziz of Saudi Arabia (1922–), and King Hussein of Jordan (1935–1999). Albright condemned terrorist activities, urged Netanyahu to make some concessions to the Palestinians, and then vowed not to meet with Israeli and Palestinian leaders again until they were “ready to make the hard decisions.” In July 2000 Albright returned to the Middle East. This time, talks between the new Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Barak (1942–) and Arafat ended when Barak said he was taking time out from the peace process.

Albright made history with her October 23, 2000, visit to North Korea’s leader Kim Jong II (1941–). She became the first U.S. secretary of state to visit North Korea.

### ***Another career***

After Albright’s term as secretary of state ended in January 2001, she became chairman

of the board for the National Democratic Institute. Albright is also a well-known public speaker. According to the Washington Speakers Bureau, “Madeleine Albright speaks with humor, insight, and eloquence about her life and career . . . she provides audiences with a unique, no-holds-barred account of service at the highest levels of the American government.”

In spring 2001 Albright became the Michael and Virginia Mortara Distinguished Professor in the Practice of Diplomacy. In a comment about her new teaching position Albright said, “I am very pleased . . . to have the opportunity to teach, and be inspired by, inquiring students.”

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## LOUISA MAY ALCOTT

**Born:** November 29, 1832

**Germantown, Pennsylvania**

**Died:** March 6, 1888

**Boston, Massachusetts**

*American writer*

**L**ouisa May Alcott is one of America’s best-known writers of juvenile (intended for young people) fiction.



Louisa May Alcott.

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She was also a reformer who worked to gain the right to vote for women and who opposed the drinking of alcohol.

### **Early poverty**

Louisa May Alcott was born in Germantown, Pennsylvania, on November 29, 1832. She was one of four daughters of Bronson Alcott, an educator and philosopher (one who seeks an understanding of the world and man's place in it), and Abigail May Alcott. Her father was unsuited for many jobs and also unwilling to take many of them, and as a result he was unable to support his family. The Alcotts were very poor. Her father

moved the family to Boston, Massachusetts, in 1834 and founded the Temple School, in which he planned to use his own teaching methods. The school failed, and the family moved to Concord, Massachusetts, in 1840.

Alcott's father was a strong supporter of women's rights and an early abolitionist (opponent of slavery), and his friends were some of the most brilliant and famous men and women of the day. His friends included Henry David Thoreau (1817–1862), Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882), Margaret Fuller (1810–1850), and Theodore Parker (1810–1860). Alcott and her sisters became friends with these visitors as well, and were even tutored by them at times. This combination of intellectual richness and actual poverty helped Alcott develop her sense of humor.

Alcott soon realized that if she and her sisters did not find ways to bring money into the home, the family would be doomed to permanent poverty. In her early years she worked at a variety of tasks to make money to help her family, including teaching, sewing, and housework. At sixteen she wrote a book, *Flower Fables* (not published for six years), and she wrote a number of plays that were never produced. By 1860 her stories and poems were being published in the *Atlantic Monthly*. During the Civil War (1861–65; a war fought in the United States between the states in the North and the states in the South mainly over the issue of slavery), Alcott served as a nurse until her health failed. Her description of the experience in *Hospital Sketches* (1863) brought her work to the attention of many people.

### Success arrives

The attention seemed to die out, however, when she published her first novel, *Moods*, in 1865, and she was glad to accept a job in 1867 as the editor of the juvenile magazine *Merry's Museum*. The next year she produced the first volume of *Little Women*, a cheerful and attractive account of her childhood. The character Jo represented Alcott herself, and Amy, Beth, and Meg represented her sisters. The book was an instant success, and a second volume followed in 1869. The resulting sales accomplished the goal she had worked toward for twenty-five years: the Alcott family had enough money to live comfortably.

After *Little Women* set the direction, Alcott continued producing similar works. She wrote *An Old-fashioned Girl* (1870), *Little Men* (1871), and *Work* (1873), an account of her early efforts to help support the family. During this time she took an active role in speaking out about the danger of drinking alcohol, and she also campaigned for women's suffrage (right to vote). She also toured Europe. In 1876 she produced *Silver Pitchers*, a collection containing "Transcendental Wild Oats," a description of her father's failed attempts to found a communal group (where people live together and share ownership and use of property) in Fruitlands, Massachusetts. In later life she produced a book almost every year and maintained a loyal following of readers.

Alcott died on March 6, 1888, in Boston, Massachusetts. She seems never to have become bitter about the struggles of her early years or her father's flaws. She did give some indication of her feelings about him, however, when she said that a philosopher was like a

man up in a balloon: he was safe, as long as three women held the ropes on the ground.

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## ALEXANDER II

**Born:** April 17, 1818

Moscow, Russia

**Died:** March 1, 1881

St. Petersburg, Russia

*Russian emperor*

Alexander II was emperor of Russia from 1855 to 1881. He is called the "czar liberator" because he freed the serfs (poor peasants who lived on land owned by nobles) in 1861. Alexander's reign is famous in Russian history and is called the "era of great reforms."

### Alexander as a young man

Alexander II, the oldest son of Emperor Nicholas I (1796–1855), was born in Moscow, Russia, on April 17, 1818. Because he would become emperor one day, Alexander was taught many different subjects. Vasili Zhukovski (1783–1852), a famous Russian poet, was his principal tutor, or private



Alexander II.

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teacher. Alexander learned to speak Russian, German, French, English, and Polish. He gained a knowledge of military arts, finance, and diplomacy, or the study of dealing with foreign countries. From an early age he traveled widely in Russia and in other countries. For example, in 1837 he visited thirty Russian provinces, including Siberia (a frigid, northern region of Russia) where no member of the royal family had ever visited. Unlike his father, Alexander had various military and government jobs throughout his younger days. In fact during Nicholas's absence Alexander was given the duties of the czar, or Russian emperor.

## Freeing the serfs

Before he became czar, Alexander did not believe that freeing the serfs was a good idea. He changed his mind because he believed that freeing the serfs was the only way to prevent them from revolting. However, freeing the more than forty million serfs was not an easy task. In 1861 Alexander created an emancipation, or freedom, law, which said that serfs could now marry, own property, and argue court cases. Each landowner had to determine the area of land owned by the serfs. Landowners also had to pay the serfs for the work they did. Each peasant family received their house and a certain amount of land. Land usually became the property of the village government, which had the power to distribute it among the families. Peasant families had to make payments for the land for more than forty-nine years. The original landowner kept only a small portion of the land.

The emancipation law of 1861 has been called the greatest single law in history. It gave the serfs a more dignified life. Yet there were many problems. In many cases the serfs did not receive enough land and they were overcharged for it. Since they had to pay for the land, they could not easily move. Still, overall it was a good law for the Russian people.

## Reforms at home

Because the serfs were now free citizens, it was necessary to reform the entire local system of government. A law in 1864 created local assemblies, which handled local finances, education, agriculture, medical care, and maintenance of the roads. A new voting system provided representation to the peasants in these assemblies. Peasants and their

former landowners were brought together to work out problems in their villages.

During Alexander's reign other reforms were also started. Larger cities were given governmental assemblies similar to those of the villages. The Russian court system was reformed, and for the first time in Russian history, juries, or panels of citizens called together to decide court cases, were permitted. Court cases were debated publicly, and all social classes were made equal before the law. Censorship (or the silencing of certain opinions) was eased, which meant that people had more freedom of speech. Colleges were also freed from the rules imposed on them by Alexander's father Nicholas I.

### **Foreign policy**

Alexander also had success in foreign relations. In 1860 he signed a treaty with China that ended a land dispute between the two nations. Russia successfully ended an uprising in Poland in 1863. Then in 1877 Alexander led Russia to war against Turkey in support of a group of Christians in the areas of Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Bulgaria.

### **A violent end**

Despite the many reforms Alexander II made to improve the lives of the Russian people, in 1866 he became the target of revolutionaries, or people who fight for change. Terrorists, or people who use violence to achieve their goals, acted throughout the 1870s. They wanted constitutional changes, and they were also upset over several peasant uprisings that the government violently put down. A member of a terrorist group murdered Alexander II on March 1, 1881, in St. Petersburg, Russia.

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## ALEXANDER THE GREAT

**Born:** September 20, 356 B.C.E.

**Pella, Macedonia**

**Died:** June 13, 323 B.C.E.

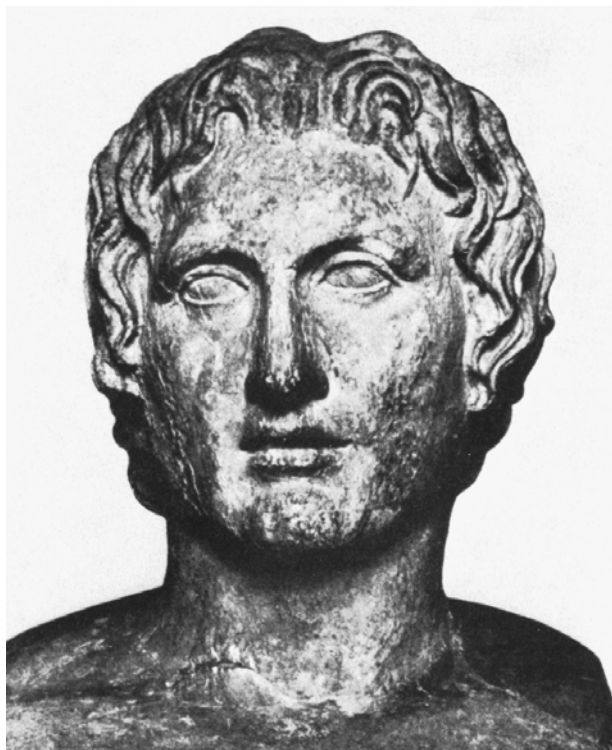
**Babylon**

*Macedonian king*

Alexander the Great was one of the best-known rulers in ancient history. By the time of his death at thirty-two, he ruled the largest Western empire of the ancient world.

### **Education by tutors**

Alexander was born in 356 B.C.E. to King Philip II of Macedon (382–336 B.C.E.) and Queen Olympias (375–316 B.C.E.). Growing up, Alexander rarely saw his father, who was usually involved in long military campaigns. Olympias, a fierce and possessive mother, dominated her son's youth and filled him with a deep resentment of his father. Nonetheless, their son's education was important to both parents.



*Alexander the Great.*

One of Alexander's first teachers was Leonidas, a relative of Olympias, who struggled to control the defiant boy. Philip hired Leonidas to train the youth in math, archery, and horsemanship (the training and care of horses). Alexander's favorite tutor was Lysimachus. This tutor devised a game in which Alexander impersonated the hero Achilles. Achilles was a heroic Greek warrior from a famous ancient poem called the *Iliad*. Achilles became the model of the noble warrior for Alexander, and he modeled himself after this hero. This game delighted Olympias because her family claimed the hero as an ancestor.

In 343 Philip asked Aristotle (384–322 B.C.E.), the famous Greek philosopher and scientist, to tutor Alexander. For three years in the rural Macedonian village of Mieza, Aristotle taught Alexander philosophy, government, politics, poetry, drama, and the sciences. Aristotle wrote a shortened edition of the *Iliad*, which Alexander always kept with him.

## ***Beginnings of the soldier***

Alexander's education at Mieza ended in 340 B.C.E.. While Philip was away fighting a war, he left the sixteen-year-old prince as acting king. Within a year Alexander led his first military attack against a rival tribe. In 338 he led the cavalry (troops who fight battles on horseback) and helped his father smash the forces of Athens and Thebes, two Greek city-states.

Alexander's relationship and military cooperation with his father ended soon after Philip took control of the Corinthian League. The Corinthian League was a military alliance made up of all the Greek states except for Sparta. Philip then married another woman, which forced Alexander and Olympias to flee Macedon. Eventually Philip and Alexander were reunited.

## ***Alexander as king***

In the summer of 336 B.C.E. at the ancient Macedonian capital of Aegai, Alexander's sister married her uncle Alexander. During this event Philip was assassinated by a young Macedonian noble, Pausanias. After his father's death Alexander sought the approval of the Macedonian army for his bid for kingship. The generals agreed and proclaimed him king, making Alexander the ruler of Macedon. In order to secure his

throne, Alexander then killed everyone who could have a possible claim to the kingship.

Although he was the king of Macedon, Alexander did not automatically gain control of the Corinthian League. Some Greek states rejoiced at Philip's murder, and Athens wanted to rule the League. Throughout Greece independence movements arose. Immediately Alexander led his armies to Greece to stop these movements. The Greek states quickly recognized him as their leader, while Sparta still refused to join. The League gave Alexander unlimited military powers to attack Persia, a large kingdom to the east of Greece.

### *Asian campaign*

In October 335 B.C.E. Alexander returned to Macedon and prepared for his Persian expedition. In numbers of troops, ships, and wealth, Alexander's resources were inferior to those of Darius III (380–330 B.C.E.), the king of Persia. In the early spring of 334 Alexander's army met Darius's army for the first time. Alexander's army defeated the Persians and continued to move west. Darius's capital at Sardis fell easily, followed by the cities of Miletus and Halicarnassus. The territories Alexander conquered formed the foundations of his Asian empire.

By autumn 334 Alexander had crossed the southern coast of Asia Minor (now Turkey). In Asia Minor, Alexander cut the famous Gordian Knot. According to tradition, whoever undid the intricate Gordian Knot would become ruler of Asia. Many people began to believe that Alexander had god-like powers and was destined to rule Asia.

Then in 333 Alexander moved his forces east and the two kings met in battle at the

city of Issus. Alexander was outnumbered but used creative military formations to beat Darius's forces. Darius fled. Alexander then attacked the Persian royal camp where he gained lots of riches and captured the royal family. He treated Darius's wife, mother, and three children with respect. With Darius's army defeated, Alexander proclaimed himself king of Asia.

As a result of the defeat, Darius wanted to sign a truce with Alexander. He offered a large ransom for his family, a marriage alliance, a treaty of friendship, and part of his empire. Alexander ignored Darius's offer because he wanted to conquer all of Asia.

### *Campaign in Egypt*

Alexander then pushed on into Egypt. Egypt fell to Alexander without resistance, and the Egyptians hailed him as their deliverer from Persian domination. In every country, Alexander respected the local customs, religions, and citizens. In Egypt he sacrificed to the local gods and the Egyptian priesthood recognized him as pharaoh, or ruler of ancient Egypt. They hailed Alexander as a god. Alexander then worked to bring Greek culture to Egypt. In 331 B.C.E. he founded the city of Alexandria, which became a center of Greek culture and commerce.

### *More fighting in Persia*

In September 331 B.C.E. Alexander defeated the Persians at the Battle of Gaugamela. The Persian army collapsed, and again Darius fled. Instead of chasing after him, Alexander explored Babylonia, which was the region that Darius had abandoned. The land had rich farmlands, palaces, and treasures. Alexander became "King of Baby-



lon, King of Asia, King of the Four Quarters of the World.”

Alexander next set out for Persepolis, the capital of the Persian Empire. To prevent an uprising, Alexander burned Persepolis. In the spring of 330 he marched to Darius's last capital, Ecbatana (modern Hamadan). There Alexander set off in pursuit of Darius.

By the time Alexander caught up with Darius in July 330, Darius's assistants had assassinated him. Alexander ordered a royal funeral with honors for his enemy. As Darius's successor, Alexander captured the assassins and punished them according to Persian law. Alexander was now the king of Persia, and he began to wear Persian royal clothing. As elsewhere, Alexander respected the local customs.

### ***Iran and India***

After defeating Darius, Alexander pushed eastward toward Iran. He conquered the region, built cities, and established colonies of Macedonians. In the spring of 327 B.C.E. he seized the fortress of Ariamazes and captured the prince Oxyartes. Alexander married Oxyartes's daughter Rhoxana to hold together his Eastern empire more closely in a political alliance.

In the summer of 327 Alexander marched toward India. In northern India, he defeated the armies of King Porus. Impressed with his bravery and nobility, Alexander allowed Porus to remain king and gained his loyalty.

By July 325 the army continued north to the harsh and barren land in the Persian Gulf. The hardship and death that occurred after arriving brought disorganization to the army. It was also at this time that disorder

began to spread throughout the empire. Alexander was greatly concerned with the rule of his empire and the need for soldiers, officers, and administrators.

In order to strengthen the empire, Alexander then made an attempt to bind the Persian nobility to the Macedonians to create a ruling class. To accomplish this goal, he ordered eighty of his Macedonian companions to marry Persian princesses. Alexander, although married to Rhoxana, married Stateira, a daughter of Darius, to solidify his rule.

When Alexander incorporated thirty thousand Persians into the army, his soldiers grumbled. Later that summer, when he dismissed his aged and wounded Macedonian soldiers, the soldiers spoke out against Alexander's Persian troops and his Persian manners. Alexander arrested thirteen of their leaders and executed them. He then addressed the army and reminded his soldiers of their glories and honors. After three days the Macedonians apologized for their criticism. In a thanksgiving feast the Persians joined the Macedonians as forces of Alexander.

### ***Alexander's death***

In the spring of 323 B.C.E. Alexander moved to Babylon and made plans to explore the Caspian Sea and Arabia and then to conquer northern Africa. On June 2 he fell ill, and he died eleven days later.

Alexander's empire had been a vast territory ruled by the king and his assistants. The empire fell apart at his death. The Greek culture that Alexander introduced in the East had barely developed. In time, however, the Persian and Greek cultures blended and prospered as a result of his rule.

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## MUHAMMAD ALI

**Born:** January 17, 1942

**Louisville, Kentucky**

*African American boxer*

Muhammad Ali was the only professional boxer to win the heavyweight championship three times. He provided leadership and an example for African American men and women around the world with his political and religious views.

### Early life

Muhammad Ali was born Cassius Marcellus Clay Jr. on January 17, 1942, in Louisville, Kentucky, the first of Cassius Marcellus Clay Sr. and Odessa Grady Clay's two sons. His father was a sign painter who also loved to act, sing, and dance; his mother worked as a cleaning lady when money was tight. Ali began boxing at the age of twelve. His bicycle had been stolen, and he reported the theft to a policeman named Joe Martin, who gave boxing lessons in a local youth

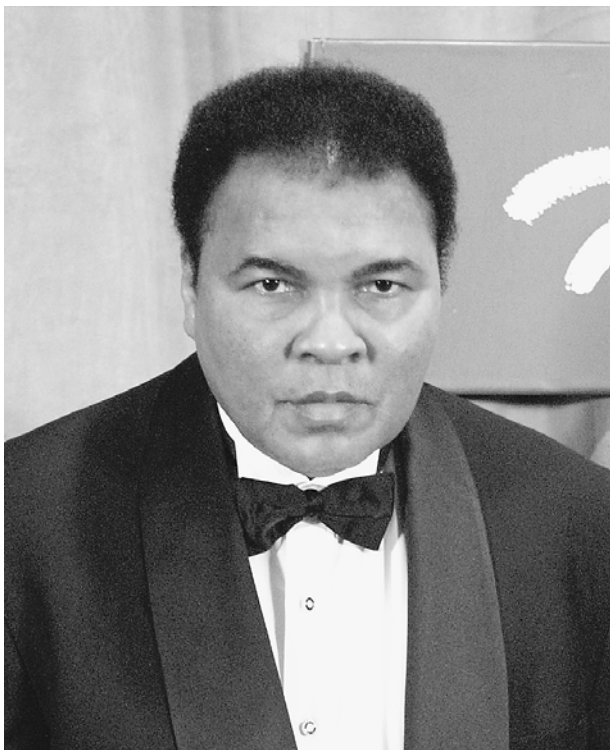
center. Martin invited Ali to try boxing and soon saw that he had talent.

Martin began to feature Ali on his local television show, "Tomorrow's Champions," and he started Ali working out at Louisville's Columbia Gym. An African American trainer named Fred Stoner taught Ali the science of boxing. Among the many things Ali learned was how to move with the grace and ease of a dancer. Although his schoolwork suffered, Ali devoted all of his time to boxing and improved steadily.

### "Float like a butterfly, sting like a bee"

As a teenager Ali won both the national Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and Golden Gloves championships. At the age of eighteen he competed in the 1960 Olympic games held in Rome, Italy, winning the gold medal in the lighthweight division. This led to a contract with a group of millionaires called the Louisville Sponsors Group. It was the biggest contract ever signed by a professional boxer. Ali worked his way through a series of professional victories, using a style that combined speed with great punching power. He was described by one of his handlers as having the ability to "float like a butterfly, and sting like a bee."

Ali's unique style of boasting, rhyming, and expressing confidence brought him considerable media attention as he moved toward a chance to fight for the world heavyweight boxing championship. When he began to write poems predicting his victories in different fights he became known as "The Louisville Lip." Both the attention and his skill as a fighter paid off. In February 1964, when he was only twenty-two years old, he fought and defeated Sonny Liston for the heavyweight championship of the world.



Muhammad Ali.

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### Religious change

Inspired by Muslim spokesman Malcolm X (1925–1965), Ali began to follow the Black Muslim faith (a group that supports a separate black nation) and announced that he had changed his name to Cassius X. This was at a time when the struggle for civil rights was at a peak and the Muslims had emerged as a controversial (causing disputes) but important force in the African American community. Later the Muslim leader Elijah Muhammad (1897–1975) gave him the name Muhammad Ali, which means “beloved of Allah.” (Allah is the god worshipped by Mus-

lims.) In his first title defense in May 1965 Ali defeated Sonny Liston with a first-round knockout. (Many called it a phantom punch because it was so fast and powerful that few watching the fight even saw it.) Ali successfully defended his title eight more times.

In April 1967 Ali was drafted into military service during the Vietnam War (1957–75; a war fought in an unsuccessful attempt to stop Communist North Vietnam from overtaking South Vietnam). He claimed that as a minister of the Black Muslim religion he was not obligated to serve. The press criticized him as unpatriotic, and the New York State Athletic Commission and World Boxing Association suspended his boxing license and stripped him of his heavyweight title. Ali told *Sports Illustrated*, “I’m giving up my title, my wealth, maybe my future. Many great men have been tested for their religious beliefs. If I pass this test, I’ll come out stronger than ever.” Ali was finally sentenced to five years in prison but was released on appeal, and his conviction was thrown out three years later by the U.S. Supreme Court.

### Back in the ring

Ali returned to the ring and beat Jerry Quarry in 1970. Five months later he lost to Joe Frazier (1944–), who had replaced him as heavyweight champion when his title had been stripped. Ali regained the championship for the first time when he defeated George Foreman (1949–), who had beaten Frazier for the title, in a fight held in Zaire in 1974. Ali referred to this match as the “Rumble in the Jungle.” Ali fought Frazier several more times, including a fight in 1974 staged in New York City and a bout held in the Philippines in 1975, which Ali called the

“Thrilla in Manila.” Ali won both matches to regain his title as the world heavyweight champion. In 1975 *Sports Illustrated* magazine named Ali its “Sportsman of the Year.”

Ali now used a new style of boxing, one that he called his “rope-a-dope.” He would let his opponents wear themselves down while he rested, often against the ropes; he would then be strong and lash out in the later rounds. Ali successfully defended his title ten more times. He held the championship until Leon Spinks defeated him in February 1978 in Las Vegas, Nevada. Seven months later Ali regained the heavyweight title by defeating Spinks in New Orleans, Louisiana, becoming the first boxer in history to win the heavyweight championship three times. At the end of his boxing career he was slowed by a condition related to Parkinson’s disease (a disease of the nervous system that results in shaking and weakness of the muscles). Ali’s last fight (there were sixty-one in all) took place in 1981.

### **Role as statesman**

As Ali’s boxing career ended, he became involved in social causes and politics. He campaigned for Jimmy Carter (1924–) and other Democratic political candidates and took part in the promotion of a variety of political causes addressing poverty and the needs of children. He even tried to win the release of four kidnapped Americans in Lebanon in 1985. As a result, his image changed and he became respected as a statesman. At the 1996 Summer Olympic Games in Atlanta, Georgia, the world and his country honored Ali by choosing him to light the Olympic torch during the opening ceremonies.

Ali remains in the public eye even as he continues to suffer from the effects of Parkin-

son’s disease. In 1998 he announced he was leaving an experimental treatment program in Boca Raton, Florida, claiming that the program’s leader was unfairly using his name to gain publicity. In 1999 Ali became the first boxer to ever appear on a Wheaties cereal box. Later that year he supported a new law to clean up the business side of boxing. After the terrorist attacks on the United States on September 11, 2001, Ali agreed to record sixty-second announcements for airing in Muslim countries to show that the United States remained friendly to those of the Muslim faith. Among many documentaries and books about Ali, a film version of his life, *Ali*, was released in December 2001.

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## WOODY ALLEN

**Born:** December 1, 1935

**Brooklyn, New York**

*American filmmaker, actor, author, and comedian*

Woody Allen is one of America’s most prominent filmmakers. He has made many comedies and serious films that deal with subjects that

have always interested him—the relationships of men and women, death, and the meaning of life.

### ***The early years***

Woody Allen was born Allen Stewart Konigsberg on December 1, 1935, in the Flatbush area of Brooklyn, New York, into a family that he described as “typical noisy ethnic.” His father, Martin, held a variety of jobs including bartending, and his mother, Nettie, worked as a bookkeeper. His only sibling is a sister. As a teenager Woody did not show much intellectual or social interest and spent long hours in his bedroom practicing magic tricks. He started using the name Woody Allen at age seventeen when he began submitting jokes to a local newspaper. People noticed his jokes and asked him to write for other comedians.

After Allen graduated from high school, he enrolled in New York University as a motion picture major and, later, in the night school at City College, but he was unhappy. He dropped out of both schools to pursue his career as a comedy writer.

Before Allen turned twenty he had sold twenty thousand gags (short jokes) to the New York newspapers. By the time he turned twenty-three he was writing for one of television’s biggest comedy stars, Sid Caesar (1922–). He also hired a tutor from Columbia University to teach him literature and philosophy (the study of knowledge).

Allen began performing his own material in a small New York City nightclub in 1960. He worked six nights a week and learned how to work with an audience. He began to be noticed and started to appear on network television. Unlike other comics who favored polit-

ical humor, Allen made jokes about his own comic character whom he had invented, a little guy tormented by the big questions about life issues and his hard luck with women. Success in clubs and on television led to a comedy album that was nominated for a Grammy (a recording industry award) in 1964.

### ***Begins film career***

Allen had long been a lover of movies, American and foreign, but the first one he wrote and acted in, *What’s New, Pussycat?* (1965), turned out to be a very bad experience for him. He was so unhappy that he said he would never do another movie unless he was given complete control of the cast and how it looked in the end. Fortunately, *What’s New, Pussycat?* was so successful that Allen was given his wish for future movies.

Allen was successful in writing and directing films such as *Take the Money and Run* (1969), and *Bananas* (1971). His Broadway play *Don’t Drink the Water* was also made into a movie in 1969, although Allen neither directed it nor acted in it. His success continued with *Play It Again, Sam* (1972) (also based on a play he wrote), *Sleeper* (1973), and *Love and Death* (1975).

### ***First serious film***

Allen made his first serious film, *Annie Hall*, in 1977. It was a bittersweet (having both pleasure and pain) comedy about a romance that ends sadly. The movie won four Academy Awards (Oscars) including Best Screenplay (script) for Allen. He followed *Annie Hall* with *Interiors* (1978) and *Manhattan* (1979), both of which were more serious than comedic. His career as a serious filmmaker had definitely been recognized.

*Annie Hall* also marked the beginning of a nine-picture collaboration with movie cameraman Gordon Willis. Allen continued to use different filmmaking techniques to create a new style for each new film. He imitated the style of Italian director Federico Fellini (1920–1993) in his next film, *Stardust Memories* (1980). In that movie he plays a filmmaker who does not like his fans. During an interview with *Esquire* magazine in 1987, Allen said, “The best film I ever did, really, was *Stardust Memories*.”

### Leading ladies

Allen has been married to or has been romantically involved with the women who have starred in his movies. These include Louise Lasser (1939–), Diane Keaton (1946–), and Mia Farrow (1945–). Lasser acted in several of Allen’s earlier films. Keaton appeared not only in *Annie Hall*, but also in *Bananas*; *Play It Again, Sam*; *Sleeper*; *Love and Death*; *Interiors*; *Manhattan*; and *Radio Days* (1987). Each relationship ended unhappily, but each actress received very favorable recognition for her roles in Allen’s films.

In 1982 Allen began working with his new off-screen partner, actress Mia Farrow, in a film that was loosely based on Shakespeare’s (1564–1616) *A Midsummer’s Night Dream*. Farrow also starred in *Zelig* (1983), *Broadway Danny Rose* (1984), and *The Purple Rose of Cairo* (1985). Hollywood gave three Oscars to the next movie they made, *Hannah and Her Sisters* (1986). They worked on several more films but ended their personal life together in 1992.

### Later work

Allen continued to write and direct many films, including *Manhattan Murder*



Woody Allen.

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*Mystery* (1993), which reunited (brought together again) him with Diane Keaton. It was pure comedy. *Bullets Over Broadway* (1994) was a critically-acclaimed (liked by reviewers) comedy and melodrama (a play or film relying on highly sensational events) set on Broadway in the 1920s.

Allen continued with another comedy in 1995, making *Mighty Aphrodite*, a modern story that includes scenes parodying (comically imitating) Greek tragedy. The next release, *Everyone Says I Love You*, (1996) marked Allen’s first attempt at a musical. Reports said that he waited until two weeks after the film’s stars signed their contracts to

mention that he was making a musical. On purpose he chose actors who were not necessarily musically trained in order to get more honest emotion in the songs. (Allen himself is a very accomplished musician. He plays clarinet in the style of old New Orleans jazz every week at a club in New York City and has performed music for several of his own films.)

Woody Allen's most recent films are *Small Time Crooks* (2000), *The Curse of the Jade Scorpion* (2001), and *Hollywood Ending* (2002). Most of Allen's films have been made on modest budgets in New York City. Of the many film writers and directors, he is one of the few who has complete control of his films.

Woody Allen has grown beyond his beginnings as a comedian. Today he is regarded as one of the most versatile (capable of doing many things) movie makers in America.

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## ISABEL ALLENDE

**Born:** August 2, 1942

**Lima, Peru**

*Chilean novelist, journalist, and dramatist*

The author of several novels and a collection of short fiction, as well as plays and stories for children, Chilean author Isabel Allende has received international praise for her writing. Many of her books are noted for their feminine point of view and dramatic qualities of romance and struggle. Her first novel, *The House of the Spirits*, was made into a film in 1994.

#### **Early years in Chile**

Isabel Allende was born on August 2, 1942, in Lima, Peru. Her parents, Tomás (a Chilean government representative) and Francisca (Llona Barros) Allende divorced when she was three. After the divorce Isabel traveled with her mother to Santiago, Chile, where she was raised in her grandparents' home. Her grandmother's interest in fortune telling and astrology (the study of the influence of the stars on human behavior), as well as the stories she told, made a lasting impression on Allende. The house was filled with books, and she was allowed to read whatever she wanted.

Allende graduated from a private high school at the age of sixteen. Three years later, in 1962, she married her first husband, Miguel Frías, an engineer. Allende also went to work for the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization in Santiago, where she was a secretary for several years. Later she became a journalist, editor, and advice columnist for *Paula* magazine. In addition she worked as a television interviewer and newscaster.

#### **Exile in Venezuela**

When her uncle, Chilean president Salvador Allende (1908–1973), was assassi-

nated in 1973 as part of a military takeover of the government, Isabel Allende's life changed greatly. At first she did not think that the new government would last, but later she came to realize that it was too dangerous to stay in Chile. As a result she, her husband, and their two children fled to Venezuela. Although she had established a successful career as a journalist in Chile, she had a difficult time finding similar work in Venezuela.

During her life in exile Allende was inspired to write her debut novel, *The House of the Spirits* (1982), which became a best seller in Spain and West Germany. Based on Allende's memories of her family and the political change in her native country, the book describes the personal and political conflicts in the lives of several generations of a family in a Latin American country. These events are communicated through the memories of the novel's three main characters: Esteban and Clara, the father and mother of the Trueba family, and Alba, their granddaughter who falls into the hands of torturers during a military takeover. *The House of the Spirits* earned the Quality Paperback Book Club New Voice Award nomination. The novel was adapted by the Danish writer and director Bille August and was released as a film in the United States in 1994.

*The House of Spirits* was followed by *Of Love and Shadows*, which concerns the switching at birth of two infant girls. One of the babies grows up to become the focus of a journalist's investigation, and the revelation of the woman's assassination compels the reporter and her photographer to go into exile. The novel received a *Los Angeles Times* Book Prize nomination.



Isabel Allende.

Reproduced by permission of Ms. Isabel Allende.

While on a lecture tour in San Jose, California, to promote the publication of *Of Love and Shadows* in the United States, Allende met William Gordon, a lawyer, who was an admirer of her work and with whom she fell in love. Having been divorced from her first husband for about a year, she married Gordon in 1988 and has lived with him in Marin, California, ever since.

### ***Became powerful storyteller***

As she became more popular, Allende decided to devote all of her time to writing and quit her job as a school administrator. Her next book, *Eva Luna* (1988), focused on



the relationship between Eva, an illegitimate (born to unmarried parents) writer and storyteller, and Rolfe Carlé, an Austrian filmmaker haunted by the knowledge of his father's criminal past. The novel received positive reviews and was voted One of the Year's Best Books by *Library Journal*. Allende followed up this novel with *The Stories of Eva Luna* (1991), in which Eva relates several stories to her lover Carlé.

The Eva Luna stories were followed by *The Infinite Plan* (1993) that, unlike her other books, features a male hero in a North American setting. Gregory Reeves is the son of a traveling preacher who settles in the Hispanic section of Los Angeles after becoming ill. Local gang members torment Reeves, as he is the only Caucasian (white) boy in the district. Eventually he finds his way out of the neighborhood, serves in the army, and goes on to study law. *The Infinite Plan* received less praise than Allende's previous books. Still, as novelist Jane Smiley pointed out in her *Boston Globe* review, "Not many [authors from foreign countries] have even attempted writing a novel from the point of view of a native of the new country."

Allende's next work, *Paula* (1995), was a heartbreaking account of the circumstances surrounding the long illness and death of her daughter in 1991. Published in 1999 *Daughter of Fortune* is the story of Eliza Sommers, a girl who breaks with nineteenth-century Chilean tradition to follow her lover to California. In September 1996 Allende was honored at the Hispanic Heritage Awards for her contributions to the Hispanic American community. In 1998 she received the Dorothy and Lillian Gish Prize for excellence in the arts. Another novel, *Portrait in Sepia*, was published in 2001.

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## JULIA ALVAREZ

**Born:** March 27, 1950

**New York, New York**

*American novelist and poet*

Julia Alvarez is a writer whose most notable work is *How the Garcia Girls Lost Their Accents*, a discussion of her life in the Dominican Republic and in the United States and the hardships members of her family faced as immigrants. Many of her works examine the conflicts and benefits that go along with living as both a Dominican and an American.

### Background in the Dominican Republic

Julia Alvarez was born on March 27, 1950, in New York, New York, but she spent her early years in the Dominican Republic. She and her sisters were brought up along with their cousins, and were supervised by her mother, maids, and many aunts. Her father, a doctor who ran a nearby hospital, had met her mother while she was

attending school in the United States. Alvarez's family was highly influenced by American attitudes and goods. Alvarez and her sisters attended an American school, and, for a special treat, they ate ice cream from an American ice cream parlor. The entire extended family had respect and admiration for America; to the children, it was a fantasy land.

When Alvarez was ten years old, her father became involved with a plot to overthrow the dictator (military ruler) of the Dominican Republic, Rafael Leonidas Trujillo Molina. His plans were discovered, however. With the help of an American agent, he was able to get his family out of the country before being arrested or killed. The Alvarez family returned to New York. Describing the scene in *American Scholar* as their plane landed in the United States, Alvarez wrote, "All my childhood I had dressed like an American, eaten American foods, and befriended American children. I had gone to an American school and spent most of the day speaking and reading English. At night, my prayers were full of blond hair and blue eyes and snow. . . . All my childhood I had longed for this moment of arrival. And here I was, an American girl, coming home at last."

### ***American experiences***

Alvarez's homecoming was not what she had expected it to be. Although she was thrilled to be back in America, she would soon face homesickness and the feeling of not fitting in. She missed her cousins, her family's large home, and the respect her family had in the Dominican Republic. Alvarez, her parents, and her sisters squeezed them-



*Julia Alvarez.*

*Reproduced by permission of Mr. Jerry Bauer.*

selves and their possessions into a tiny apartment in Brooklyn, New York. Alvarez became a devoted reader, spending all of her free time with books and, eventually, writing.

Alvarez went on to college. In 1971 she earned her undergraduate degree at Middlebury College in Vermont, and in 1975 she went on to receive her master's degree in creative writing at Syracuse University. She became an English professor at Middlebury College and published several collections of poetry, including *Homecoming*, which appeared in 1984. By 1987 she was working on a collection of stories.

### Success arrives

When Alvarez published *How the Garcia Girls Lost Their Accents* in 1991, the novel received considerable attention. Rather than a straight narrative, the book is a series of fifteen connected stories told in reverse order detailing the lives of four sisters and their parents. A comparison with Alvarez's article in *American Scholar* suggests that these stories are based on her own experience. Like her family, the Garcia family is Dominican and displaced in America. Like Alvarez and her sisters, the Garcia girls struggle to adapt to their new environment and the American culture. The praise Alvarez received for her first novel outweighed the criticism that a new novelist often encounters. She received grants from the National Endowment for the Arts and The Ingram Merrill Foundation, in addition to receiving a PEN Oakland/Josephine Miles Award for excellence in multicultural literature.

Alvarez's second novel, *In the Time of Butterflies*, was published in 1994. This work recounts the lives of the Mirabel sisters—Patria, Minerva, and Maria Terese (Mate)—who were assassinated after visiting their imprisoned husbands during the last days under the Trujillo government in the Dominican Republic. Each sister in turn relates her own part of the narrative, beginning with her childhood and gradually revealing how she came to be involved in the movement against the government. Their story is completed by that of the surviving sister, Dedé, who adds her own tale of suffering to the memory of her sisters. *In the Time of Butterflies* received a favorable reaction from reviewers, some of whom admired Alvarez's ability to express the wide range of feelings brought on by the revolution. The

novel was a finalist for the National Book Critics Award in 1994.

A collection of poems entitled *The Other Side/El Otro Lado* was published in 1995. It deals with the similar themes of power of language and having ties to two cultures. In the book's title poem Alvarez is commanded by a spirit conjurer (a kind of magician or psychic) to serve her own people in the Dominican Republic. But in the end she returns "to the shore I've made up on the other side, to a life of choice, a life of words." Her next work, *Yo!*, published in 1997, is based on Yolanda, one of her characters from *How the Garcia Girls Lost Their Accents*. Each section of the novel is told from the point of view of a different character, all of whom describe Yolanda as they see her. *Something to Declare*, published in 1998, collects a series of Alvarez's essays about her experiences growing up and finding her voice as a Latin American writer.

Alvarez gave up her teaching position at Middlebury in 1997 in order to devote all of her time to writing. She continues to stay in touch with her roots by visiting the Dominican Republic four or five times a year, partly to check on the coffee bean farm she and her husband own. Profits from the farm will be used to create a learning center for Dominican children. *In the Name of Salome*, which tells the story of Dominican poet Salome Urea and her daughter, Camila, was published in 2000.

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## AMERICAN HORSE

**Born:** early nineteenth century

**Died:** September 7, 1876

*Sioux Native American tribal leader and warrior*

American Horse was a Sioux chief during the Lakota Wars of the 1860s and 1870s. His capture and death was one in a series of defeats for the Sioux after the historic Battle of the Little Bighorn (1876).

### *The son of Old Smoke becomes a shirt-wearer*

American Horse, also known as Iron Shield, was the son of Old Smoke, leader of the Smoke People. The Smoke People were also referred to as the Bad Faces. Historians are not sure about when American Horse was born. Little is known about American Horse's early life as a Lakota, but sources show that his cousin Red Cloud (1822–1909) and another Lakota, Crazy Horse (1844–1877), were lifelong friends. (The Sioux Nation is made of Lakotas, Nakotas, and Dakotas.)

In 1865 four warriors, including American Horse and Crazy Horse, were made shirt-wearers. Shirt-wearers were young warriors who had proved themselves to be strong, brave, and generous. During a ceremonial feast, each warrior was given a shirt made from the hides of two bighorn sheep and decorated with feathers, quillwork (decoration using porcupine quills or the shafts of bird feathers), and scalps. Although shirt-wearers were not considered chiefs by their people, they were looked upon as leaders.

They were expected to lead warriors in peace as well as in war, keeping the peace and respecting the rights of the weak.

### *Fort Laramie treaties*

The 1851 Fort Laramie Treaty set aside an area in northern Wyoming for Lakota hunting grounds. The treaty called for peace among the northern tribes, promised safety to the Sioux, and approved roads and military posts. In 1862, however, Congress passed the Homestead Act in 1862, and three hundred thousand settlers crossed the Plains. In addition, gold was discovered in Montana. In 1862, John M. Bozeman (1835–1867) made a trail across the Lakota Territory. From 1863 to 1864, the Bozeman Trail was the main route to the Montana gold fields. The Lakotas attacked travelers on the trail. This was the start of the Lakota Wars.

In 1865, the southern Lakota signed a new peace treaty. When attacks along the Bozeman Trail continued, the government realized the northern Lakota leaders had not agreed to the treaty. The commander at Fort Laramie was ordered to have all Lakota sign a new treaty in 1868. The Fort Laramie Treaty of 1868 promised that the Lakota, Cheyenne, and Arapaho groups could travel the buffalo grounds of the upper Missouri as long as the buffalo herds survived. The treaty also required their children to attend Christian missionary schools and promised that Fort Phil Kearney would be burnt to the ground.

In the summer of 1870, American Horse joined Red Cloud and other Lakota leaders on a trip to Washington, D.C. On their journey, the Lakota leaders saw how many people lived in the East. Several of the leaders then



*American Horse.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

agreed to move their people to reservations. Others, including Sitting Bull (1831–1890), American Horse, and Crazy Horse, refused.

## ***The Black Hills***

In 1874, while on a scouting mission in the Black Hills, Lieutenant Colonel George Armstrong Custer (1839–1876) discovered gold. This discovery brought a new wave of miners into the Black Hills. A Senate commission then met with Red Cloud and other chiefs and offered to buy their land. Seven thousand Lakota came to a special council meeting in September 1875. Red Cloud said he would not accept payment of less than

seventy million dollars and beef herds to last seven generations. Others called for war and vowed to protect their sacred land.

In December 1875, in the middle of a bitter Plains winter, the U.S. Interior Department ordered all Sioux to the Dakota reservations. Those who did not report by January 31, 1876, would be considered hostile. Because it was winter, when no one moved around on the northern plains, the Indians remained where they were. Unfamiliar with the area and the tribal customs, the Interior Department ordered the military to drive the Lakota onto the reservations. General George Crook (1828–1898) led his troops to the region to carry out the military's orders.

## ***Little Bighorn***

On March 17, 1876, a group of Crook's soldiers surprised a small Lakota camp, destroying all the tepees and winter food stores. The following month, Sitting Bull held a council to talk of war. As Sitting Bull prepared for war, many of the reservation Indians joined him. There were several minor skirmishes between soldiers and Lakotas before summer that year. By June, the Indians made camp at the Little Bighorn in the Bighorn Mountains.

Depending on who tells the story, either Custer surprised Sitting Bull's camp or Sitting Bull ambushed the Seventh Cavalry. Whichever version actually occurred, 189 soldiers, 13 officers, and 4 civilians died on June 25, 1876, at the Little Bighorn, according to official military records. Hundreds of warriors had overwhelmed the Seventh Cavalry. After their victory celebration, Sitting Bull's forces broke into smaller groups and began their summer buffalo hunt.

### *The Battle of Slim Buttes*

General Crook and other military leaders began searching for the Sioux. By September 1876, Crook's troops had run out of supplies. He sent a small group of soldiers, led by Captain Anson Mills (1834–1924), for supplies. Mills's scout found signs of a Lakota camp, and on the morning of September 9, 1876, the soldiers stampeded the tribe's horses through the sleeping camp. A private saw Custer's Seventh Cavalry guidon, or pennant, hanging on American Horse's tepee. Mills's troops also found uniforms, guns, ammunition, a letter addressed to a Seventh Cavalry soldier, and other supplies. This was considered proof that American Horse had taken part in the Battle at the Little Bighorn in June. Later, other Lakota said American Horse had not taken part in Little Bighorn and that these things had been brought into his camp by other Native Americans. No historical evidence has ever been found to prove American Horse took part in the Little Bighorn battle.

When the soldiers attacked, many Lakota escaped into the surrounding bluffs and started firing back. A small group of Lakota managed to kill some of Mills's pack mules and held off the soldiers from inside a gulch. Mills sent a message to Crook asking for help.

After two hours of exchanging shots, Crook ordered the shooting stopped. Thirteen women and children surrendered. Crook asked the women to return to the gulch to tell the remaining holdouts they would be treated well if they surrendered. A young warrior helped American Horse out of the gulch along with nine more women and children. Two warriors, one woman, and a child were left behind, dead. Cyrus Townsend Brady in *The Sioux Indian Wars from the Powder River to*

*the Little Big Horn* said, "Even the women had used guns, and had displayed all the bravery and courage of the Sioux."

### *The death of American Horse*

American Horse had been shot in the gut. When he came out of the gulch he was holding his wound and biting down on a piece of wood to keep from crying out. He handed Crook his gun and sat down by one of the fires. American Horse died that night. It was the first of many defeats for the Lakota.

In *Crazy Horse: The Strange Man of the Oglalas*, Marie Sandoz reported that American Horse said, "It is always the friendly ones who are struck," before he died. Other writers indicate American Horse said nothing before he died. In any event, American Horse is remembered as a brave Sioux fighter and leader who defended his people, the land, and the Sioux way of life.

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## IDI AMIN

**Born:** c. 1925

**Koboko, West Nile Province, Uganda**

*Ugandan president*

**A**s president of Uganda from 1971 to 1979, Idi Amin (c. 1925–) became well known for his terrible violations

of human rights, for causing the collapse of the country's economy, and for causing social disorganization. Amin is remembered best as the tyrant of Uganda who was responsible for a reign filled with mass killings and disorder.

### *Early life*

Idi Amin Dada was born sometime between 1925 and 1927 in Koboko, West Nile Province, in Uganda. His father was a Kakwa, a tribe that exists in Uganda, Zaire (now Congo), and Sudan. As a boy, Amin spent much time tending goats and working in the fields. He embraced Islam and attained a fourth-grade education. He was brought up by his mother, who abandoned his father to move to Lugazi, Uganda.

As Amin grew he matched the qualifications for military service desired by the British at that time. He was tall and strong. He spoke the Kiswahili language. He also lacked a good education, which implied that he would take orders well. Joining the army as a private in 1946, Amin impressed his superiors by being a good swimmer, rugby player, and boxer. He won the Uganda heavyweight boxing championship in 1951, a title he held for nine years. He was promoted to corporal in 1949.

### *Friendship with Obote*

During the 1950s Amin fought against the Mau Mau African freedom fighters, who were opposed to British rule in Kenya. Despite his cruel record during the uprisings, he was promoted to sergeant in 1951, lance corporal in 1953, and sergeant-major and platoon commander in 1958. By 1961 Amin had become one of the first two Ugandan officers with the rank of lieutenant.

In 1962 Amin helped stop cattle rustling, or stealing, between neighboring ethnic groups in Karamoja, Uganda, and Turkana, Kenya. Because of the brutal acts he committed during these operations, British officials recommended to Apolo Milton Obote (1924–), Uganda's prime minister, that he be brought to trial as a criminal. Obote instead publicly criticized him, deciding it would have been politically unwise to put on trial one of the two African officers just before Uganda was to gain independence from Britain on October 9, 1962. Thereafter Amin was promoted to captain in 1962 and major in 1963. He was selected to participate in the commanding officers' course at Wiltshire school of infantry in Britain in 1963. In 1964 he was made a colonel.

Amin's close association with Obote apparently began in 1965. Obote sympathized with the followers of the murdered prime minister of the Congo, Patrice Lumumba (1925–1961). Obote asked Amin for help in establishing military training camps. Amin also brought coffee, ivory, and gold into Uganda from the Congo so that the rebels there could have money to pay for arms. The opponents of Obote wanted an investigation into the illegal entry of gold and ivory into Uganda. Obote appointed a committee to look into the issue. He promoted Amin to chief of staff in 1966, and to brigadier and major-general in 1967.

### *Amin seizes control*

By 1968 the relationship between Obote and Amin had gone sour. An attempted assassination of Obote in 1969, and Amin's suspicious behavior thereafter, further widened the gap between the two men. It is

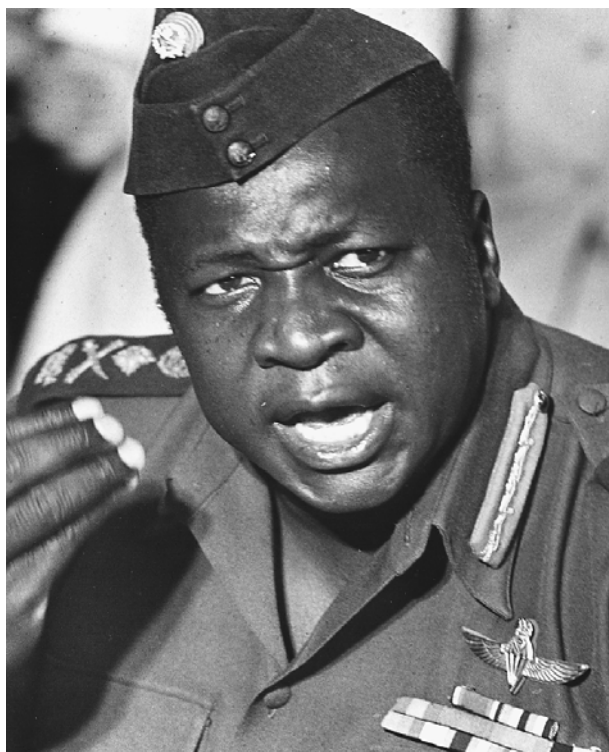
unclear why Obote promoted Amin in 1970 to become chief of general staff, a position that gave him access to every aspect of the armed forces. Amin overthrew Obote's government on January 25, 1971.

Ugandans joyfully welcomed Amin. He was a larger-than-life figure and yet simple enough to shake hands with common people and participate in their traditional dances. He was charming, informal, and flexible. Amin was thought to be a nationalist (a person who supports his or her country above all else). His popularity increased when he got rid of Obote's secret police, freed political prisoners, and told Ugandans that he would hand power back to the people.

During this period, Amin's other personality began to emerge: that of a merciless, unpredictable, cunning liar. His "killer squads" murdered Obote's supporters and two Americans who were investigating massacres (large-scale killings). It was becoming clear that Amin's seeming friendliness and clowning were only a mask to hide his brutality.

In 1972 he savagely attacked the Israelis and the British, with whom he had been friendly. He did not like that these countries would not sell him weapons. Once Mu'ammar al-Qaddafi (1942–) of Libya agreed to help, Amin immediately threw Israelis and fifty thousand Asians out of Uganda. Uganda's economy was wrecked because Asian traders were suddenly forced to leave. The action also earned Amin a poor international image.

Between 1972 and 1979 Amin's policy was to stay in power at any cost. Though he seemed brave, Amin was a coward. He was, for example, terrified in 1978 when a story circulated that a "talking tortoise" had pre-



*Idi Amin.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

dicted his downfall. He constantly changed bodyguards, traveling schedules and vehicles, and sleeping places. He controlled the army through frequent reorganization. He also kept his army happy by giving them tape recorders, expensive cars, rapid promotions, and businesses that had been owned by Asian traders.

### ***Trying to stay in power***

Amin used violence and terror to eliminate his real and imaginary enemies. The human cost of Amin's rule was huge—not only in terms of the loss of thousands of Ugandans, but also because of its dehuman-



izing (making people feel less than human) effects. Human life had become less important than wealth.

Most government funds were devoted to the armed forces and to Amin's safety. Health, transport, production of food and cash crops (easily marketable crops), industrial and manufacturing sectors, and foreign investments were neglected. Despite his growing poor reputation, Amin was elected chairman of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), an organization of African nations, on July 28, 1975. In 1977 African countries blocked a United Nations resolution that would have condemned Amin for his gross violation of human rights.

By the late 1970s Amin's luck was running out. The economy was getting worse. Arabs were concerned about Amin's failure to show how Uganda was becoming an Islamic nation but also concerned about his killing of fellow Muslims. It was becoming difficult for Amin to import luxury goods for his army. To distract attention from the country's internal crises, Amin ordered an invasion of Tanzania in October 1978, supposedly because the latter planned to overthrow his government. Amin's army was forced back. Tanzanians and exiled Ugandan soldiers then invaded Uganda and continued their pursuit of Amin until his government was overthrown on April 11, 1979.

Amin fled to Libya, but he later moved to Jidda, Saudi Arabia. There he spends his time reciting the Koran (the holy book of Islam), reading books, playing an accordion, swimming, fishing, and watching television—especially sports programs and news channels. He follows events in his homeland closely.

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## HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN

**Born:** April 2, 1805

**Odense, Denmark**

**Died:** August 4, 1875

**Copenhagen, Denmark**

*Danish writer, author, and novelist*

**H**ans Christian Andersen was the first Danish author to emerge from the lowest class. He enjoyed fame as a novelist, dramatist, and poet, but his fairy tales are his greatest contribution to world literature.

### **Early life**

Hans Christian Andersen was born on April 2, 1805, in Odense, Denmark. His father was a shoemaker, and his mother earned money washing other people's clothes. His parents spoiled him and encouraged him to develop his imagination. At the age of fourteen, Andersen convinced his mother to let him try his luck in Copenhagen, Denmark, rather than studying to become a tailor. When she asked what he

planned to do in Copenhagen, he replied, "I'll become famous! First you suffer cruelly, and then you become famous."

For three years Andersen lived in one of Copenhagen's most run-down areas. He tried to become a singer, a dancer, and an actor, but he failed. When he was seventeen, a government official arranged a scholarship for him in order to give him a second chance to receive an education. But he was a poor student and was never able to study successfully. He never learned how to spell or how to write in Danish. As a result his writing style remained close to the spoken language and still sounds fresh today, unlike the work of other writers from the same era.

After spending seven years at school, mostly under the supervision of a principal who seems to have hated him, Andersen celebrated the passing of his university exams in 1828 by writing his first narrative. The story was a success, and it was quickly followed by a collection of poems. Andersen's career as an author had begun, and his years of suffering were at an end.

### **Literary career**

In 1835 Andersen completed his first novel, *The Improvisatore*, and he published his first small volume of fairy tales, an event that attracted little attention at the time. *The Improvisatore*, like most of Andersen's novels, was based on his own life. It was a success not only in Denmark but also in England and Germany. He wrote five more novels, but as a writer of drama, Andersen failed almost completely. Many of his poems are still a part of popular Danish literature, however, and his most lasting contributions, after the fairy tales, are his travel books and his autobiography (the story of his own life).



*Hans Christian Andersen.*

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A lifelong bachelor, Andersen was frequently in love (with, among others, the singer Jenny Lind). He lived most of his life as a guest at the country homes of wealthy Danish people. He made many journeys abroad, where he met and in many cases became friends with well-known Europeans, among them the English novelist Charles Dickens (1812–1870).

### **Fairy tales**

Andersen began his fairy-tale writing by retelling folk tales he had heard as a child from his grandmother and others. Soon, however, he began to create his own stories. Most

of his tales are original. The first volumes written from 1835 to 1837 contained nineteen stories and were called *Fairy Tales Told for Children*. In 1845 the title changed to *New Fairy Tales*. The four volumes appearing with this title contained twenty-two original tales and are considered Andersen's finest works. In 1852 the title was changed to *Stories*, and from then on the volumes were called *New Fairy Tales and Stories*. During the next years Andersen published a number of volumes of fairy tales. His last works of this type appeared in 1872. Among his most popular tales are "The Ugly Duckling," "The Princess and the Pea," and "The Little Mermaid."

At first Andersen was not very proud of his fairy-tale writing, and, after talks with friends and Danish critics, he considered giving them up. But he later came to believe that the fairy tale would be the "universal poetry" (poetry that exists in all cultures) of which so many romantic writers dreamed. He saw fairy tales as the poetic form of the future, combining folk art and literature and describing both the tragic and the comical elements of life. Andersen's tales form a rich, made-up world. While children can enjoy most of the tales, the best of them are written for adults as well. The tales also take on different meanings to different readers, a feat only a great poet can accomplish. Andersen died in Copenhagen, Denmark, on August 4, 1875.

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## CARL DAVID ANDERSON

**Born:** September 3, 1905

**New York, New York**

**Died:** January 11, 1991

**San Marino, California**

*American physicist*

The American physicist Carl David Anderson opened up the entire field of particle physics, the study of the atom, the smallest unit of matter. Because of his discoveries of the positron (positive electron) and the meson (similar to the negative electron), two particles that make up the atom, Anderson was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1936.

#### **Childhood and education**

On September 3, 1905, Carl David Anderson was born in New York, New York. He was the only child of Swedish parents, Carl and Emma Anderson. When he was a child Anderson wanted a career in athletics, as a high jumper. The Anderson family moved to Los Angeles, where Carl David attended Los Angeles Polytechnic High School and first became interested in science. In 1924 he entered the California Institute of Technology (Cal Tech), with which he would remain associated throughout his life. In 1927 Anderson received his bachelor's degree. He then continued his education in graduate school on a research grant, centering his graduate work on physics and mathematics.

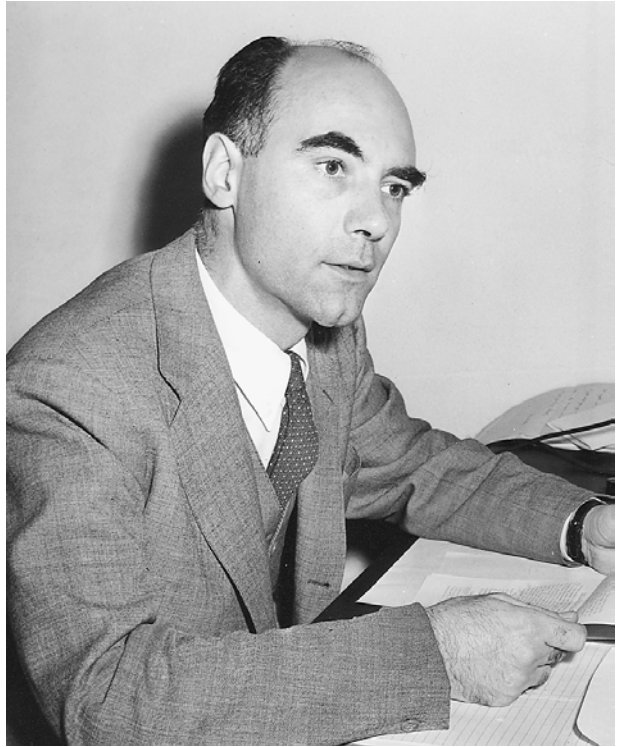
As a teacher Anderson obtained a doctorate degree with honors in 1930 under the physicist R. A. Millikan (1868–1953), who

was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1933 for his work in physics. After working with Millikan at Cal Tech as a researcher for three years, Anderson was promoted to assistant professor in 1933. He eventually worked his way to chairman of the Division of Physics, Mathematics, and Astronomy in 1962.

### *Discovery of the positron*

In the years immediately after Anderson received his degree, he discovered the positron, or positive electron—a revolutionary discovery, because the positron became the first known antiparticle (the oppositely charged particles of an atom) and the first known positively charged particle other than the proton. Anderson made his discovery during his and Millikan's quest to determine the nature of cosmic rays (positive particles from outer space) by allowing the rays to pass through a Wilson cloud chamber (a device used to detect elementary particles) in a strong magnetic field. By 1931 he had found evidence indicating that the rays produced charged particles whose tracks were very similar to those produced by ordinary electrons, except that they were bent by the magnetic field in the opposite direction. His famous photograph taken on August 2, 1932, clearly displayed a positron crossing a lead plate placed in the cloud chamber.

The following spring P. M. S. Blackett (1897–1974) and G. P. S. Occhialini were working independently at the Cavendish Laboratory in England. They produced a number of cloud chamber photographs indicating that a gamma-ray photon (electromagnetic energy) interacting with the intense electromagnetic field surrounding a nucleus,



*Carl David Anderson.*

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the center part of an atom, can create a positron-electron pair—that is, matter (anything that has mass and occupies space). They also recognized, as Anderson at the time had not, that Anderson's positron was the same particle that had been predicted by P. A. M. Dirac's (1902–1984) 1928 relativistic quantum-mechanical theory of the electron, a theory that described the structure of the atom. (Many physicists had believed Dirac's theory to be imperfect because it used the yet-undiscovered positron.) Work by Anderson and others established beyond doubt the proper experimental conditions for the creation and destruction of positrons.

In 1936 Anderson made a second important experimental discovery: the existence of a charged particle in cosmic radiation (rays from the sun) with a mass (an amount of matter) of about 200 electron masses, or of about one-tenth the mass of a proton. Anderson named these particles mesotrons (later shortened to mesons). He believed them to be identical to the nuclear particle H. Yukawa (1907–1981) had theoretically predicted less than two years earlier. It was later realized, however, that Anderson's meson is actually the mu meson (or muon), and Yukawa's meson is actually the pi meson (or pion). After World War II (1939–45) Anderson continued to develop the field of particle physics, which his groundbreaking 1932 discovery had opened up for research.

### **Later life**

Anderson received many honors, beginning at just thirty-one years of age with the Nobel Prize for Physics in 1936, which he shared with V. F. Hess (1883–1964). Anderson received several honorary doctoral degrees and became a member of the National Academy of Sciences.

In 1946 he married Lorraine Elvira Bergman. The Andersons had two sons, Marshall and David. Anderson maintained his research and teaching activities until his retirement in 1976. He died in San Marino, California on January 11, 1991, at the age of eighty-five.

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## ELIZABETH GARRETT ANDERSON

**Born:** 1836

**Aldeburgh, Suffolk, England**

**Died:** December 17, 1917

**Aldeburgh, Suffolk, England**

*English physician and activist*

Elizabeth Garrett Anderson was the first woman officially approved to practice medicine in Great Britain, and was a pioneer in opening education in medicine to women. She made great sacrifices and struggled to create new pathways for women in British medicine.

### **Childhood and schooling**

Elizabeth Garrett was the second of ten children (four sons and six daughters) born to Newson Garrett, a successful businessman of Aldeburgh, Suffolk, England, and his wife, Louisa Dunnell Garrett. Her parents had not always been wealthy, and Garrett's father was eager to make sure his children's circumstances would improve. Believing that all his children—girls as well as boys—should receive the best education possible, Elizabeth's father saw to it that she and her sister Louie were taught at home by a governess (a

live-in, female tutor). In 1849 they were sent to the Academy for the Daughters of Gentlemen, a school in Blackheath, England, run by the aunts of famous poet Robert Browning (1812–1889). Garrett would later shudder when she recalled the “stupidity of the teachers” and the school’s lack of instruction in science and mathematics. Nonetheless the school’s rule requiring students to speak French proved to be a great benefit.

On her return to Aldeburgh two years later, Garrett studied Latin and mathematics with her brothers’ tutors. Garrett’s friend, the educator Emily Davies (1830–1921), encouraged her to reject the traditional life of the well-to-do English lady. Davies believed that women should be given the opportunity to obtain a better education and prepare themselves for a profession, especially medicine. But Davies herself did not feel suited to becoming a pioneer in medicine and encouraged Garrett to take on this role.

### ***An important meeting***

In 1859 Garrett met Elizabeth Blackwell, the first woman in America to graduate from a regular medical school. Blackwell was delivering a series of lectures in London, England, on “Medicine as a Profession for Ladies.” Blackwell compared what she considered the useless life of the well-to-do lady with the services that female doctors could perform. She stressed the contributions female doctors could make by educating mothers on nutrition (proper diet) and child-care, as well as working in hospitals, schools, prisons, and other institutions. Blackwell was enthusiastic about Garrett’s interest and potential, and she helped fuel Garrett’s interest in becoming a fully accredited physician



*Elizabeth Garrett Anderson.*

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(a physician who is recognized as having met all of the official requirements needed to practice medicine).

Although Garrett’s father at first found the idea of a woman physician “disgusting,” he went with Garrett as she visited well-known physicians, seeking advice on how to pursue her goal. The doctors told Garrett and her father that it was useless for a woman to seek a medical education, because a woman’s name would not be placed on the Medical Register, an official list of approved doctors. Unless a person’s name was listed on the Medical Register, that person could not legally practice medicine in England.

*Struggle for education*

Eventually, Garrett began a “trial period” of work as a surgical nurse (a nurse who assists during surgeries) at London’s Middlesex Hospital. She used the opportunity to attend surgical procedures and gain some of the training given to medical students. At the end of her three-month trial period, she unofficially became a medical student. She visited patients, worked in the dispensary (a unit where medical supplies and treatments are given out), and helped with emergency patients. The hospital staff accepted her as a guest, but would not officially accept her as a student.

Despite further rejections from Oxford and Cambridge universities and the University of London, Garrett would not be held back. Determined to earn a qualifying diploma in order to place her name on the Medical Register, she decided to pursue the degree of Licentiate of the Society of Apothecaries (L.S.A.). Apothecaries were pharmacists—that is, they prepared and gave out medications. Although the L.S.A. degree was not as impressive as the M.D. (Doctor of Medicine) degree, people with L.S.A.s were officially recognized as physicians. A person had to work for five years under the guidance of a doctor, take certain required lecture courses, and pass an examination to qualify. Although Britain’s organization for apothecaries was not at all an advocate of equal opportunity for women, its charter stated that it would examine “all persons” who had satisfied the regulations.

Garrett tried to study at St. Andrews University in Scotland, but the school refused to allow a woman to graduate from its programs. She was finally able to piece

together the required courses she needed. But when Garrett presented her qualifications to the Society of Apothecaries in the fall of 1865, they refused to allow her to take the examination that would qualify her for an L.S.A. degree. After Garrett’s father threatened to take them to court, they changed their minds. Garrett passed the qualifying examination and her name was listed in the Medical Register one year later.

*Opening a women’s hospital*

Garrett’s goal was to establish a hospital for women staffed by women. Thus in 1866 she opened the St. Mary’s Dispensary for Women in London. The dispensary (which was not a full-fledged hospital, but was a place where aid and supplies were distributed) filled a great need, and soon found it necessary to expand its services. In 1872, with a ward (unit) of ten beds, the dispensary became the New Hospital for Women and Children.

Garrett maintained a strong interest in the reform of education. At the time free basic education was becoming a reality for poorer children, and the working men of the district in which she practiced medicine asked her to run for election to the school board. She was elected to the London School Board in 1870, the same year she obtained her M.D. degree from the University of Paris. In 1869 Garrett applied for a position at the Shadwell Hospital for Children in London. One of the members of the hospital board of directors who interviewed her was James George Skelton Anderson, her future husband. They were married in 1871.

The New Hospital for Women provided a demonstration of what trained professional

women could accomplish. In 1878 Garrett became the first woman in Europe to successfully perform an ovariectomy (removal of one or both ovaries, the female reproductive glands that produce eggs). Garrett did not enjoy operating, however, and was perfectly willing to turn this part of hospital work over to other women surgeons on her staff. The hospital moved to a larger site in 1899, nearly twenty years before it was renamed the Elizabeth Garrett Anderson Hospital.

### ***Later accomplishments***

In 1874 Garrett helped establish the London School of Medicine for Women, where she taught for twenty-three years. Two years after its founding, the school was placed on the list of recognized medical schools, guaranteeing its graduates access to a medical license. In 1877 the school was attached to the Royal Free Hospital, and was permitted to grant the degrees that were required for enrollment on the British Medical Registry.

In 1902 the Andersons moved to Aldeburgh, England, and six years later Garrett became the town's first female mayor. It was one of many "firsts" in a life full of them. Anderson was England's first female doctor, the first female M.D. in France, the first female member of the British Medical Association (Britain's leading association of doctors), the first female dean of a medical school, and Britain's first female mayor. Her distinguished life came to an end on December 17, 1917, when she died in Aldeburgh.

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## MARIAN ANDERSON

**Born:** February 27, 1897

**Philadelphia, Pennsylvania**

**Died:** April 8, 1993

**Portland, Oregon**

*African American opera singer*

Marian Anderson is remembered as one of the best American contraltos (women with lower singing voices) of all time. She was the first African American singer to perform at the White House and the first African American to sing with New York's Metropolitan Opera.

### ***Anderson's early years***

Marian Anderson was born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on February 27, 1897. She was educated in the public schools. She displayed a remarkable skill for singing when she was very young, and she loved singing for her church choir. When she could not afford singing lessons, her fellow choir members raised the money that allowed her to study with a famous singing teacher.

When Anderson was twenty-three years old, she entered a competition and won first place over three hundred other singers. The





Marian Anderson.

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prize was the opportunity to sing with the New York Philharmonic orchestra. Further sponsorships enabled her to continue her studies in both the United States and in Europe.

Following Anderson's debuts (first performances on stage in a particular city) in Berlin, Germany, in 1930 and London, England, in 1932, she performed in Scandinavia (northern Europe), South America, and the Soviet Union. In Salzburg, Austria, she gave a sensational performance. The famous conductor Arturo Toscanini (1867–1957) was in the audience. After hearing her sing, Toscanini said she had “a voice heard but once in a century.”

### *Return to the United States*

At the end of Anderson's European tour, she was signed to a contract for fifteen concerts in the United States. On December 30, 1935, she opened her American tour at New York's Town Hall. She performed pieces by European classical composers as well as several African American spirituals (traditional religious songs). The performance was a great success. Critics welcomed her as a “new high priestess of song.” In the words of a writer for the *New York Times*, the concert established her as “one of the great singers of our time.”

Over the next several years Anderson sang for U.S. president Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882–1945) at the White House and for Great Britain's King George VI (1895–1952) during his 1939 visit to the United States. She made several cross-country tours and soon was booking engagements (scheduling jobs) two years in advance. In one year she traveled twenty-six thousand miles. It was the longest tour in concert history. She gave seventy concerts in five months. After World War II (1939–45; a war fought between Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States against Germany, Italy, and Japan) ended, she performed in major European cities again. By 1950 it was estimated that she had performed before nearly four million listeners.

### *Victory over racial discrimination*

Anderson was a pioneer in winning recognition at home and abroad for African American artists. In 1939 an incident involving the Daughters of the American Revolution (DAR) helped focus public attention on racism. The DAR denied Anderson use of

their Constitution Hall in Washington, D.C., for an April concert. First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt resigned from the DAR in protest and had the U.S. government allow Anderson to perform at the Lincoln Memorial. Her concert there, on Easter morning, drew a live audience of seventy-five thousand, and millions more heard it over the radio.

In 1948 Anderson underwent a dangerous throat operation for a growth that threatened to damage her voice. For two months she was not permitted to use her voice. She was not sure if she would ever be able to sing again. When she was finally allowed to rehearse, her voice returned free of damage. Following her recovery, Anderson made her first post–World War II tour of Europe, including stops in Scandinavia, Paris (France), London (England), Antwerp (Belgium), Zurich (Switzerland), and Geneva (Switzerland).

### ***Operatic debut***

In 1955, and again in 1956, Anderson sang in an opera at New York's Metropolitan Opera House. This was the first time an African American had sung with the Metropolitan since it opened in 1883. Over the years Anderson continued to add to her accomplishments. She sang at the presidential inaugurations of Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969) and John F. Kennedy (1917–1963). In 1957 Anderson made a concert tour of India and the Far East for the U.S. State Department. In 1958 President Eisenhower appointed her a delegate (representative) to the Thirteenth General Assembly of the United Nations (UN). She was awarded the UN Peace Prize in 1977. Anderson gave her farewell concert (last public performance) at Carnegie Hall in New York on

Easter Sunday in 1965. She died on April 8, 1993, in Portland, Oregon.

A *New York Times* music critic wrote about Anderson this way: “Those who remember her at her height ... can never forget that big resonant voice, with those low notes almost visceral [having to do with basic emotions] in nature, and with that easy, unforced ascent to the top register. A natural voice, a hauntingly colorful one, it was one of the vocal phenomena [rare event] of its time.”

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## FRA ANGELICO

**Born: c. 1400**

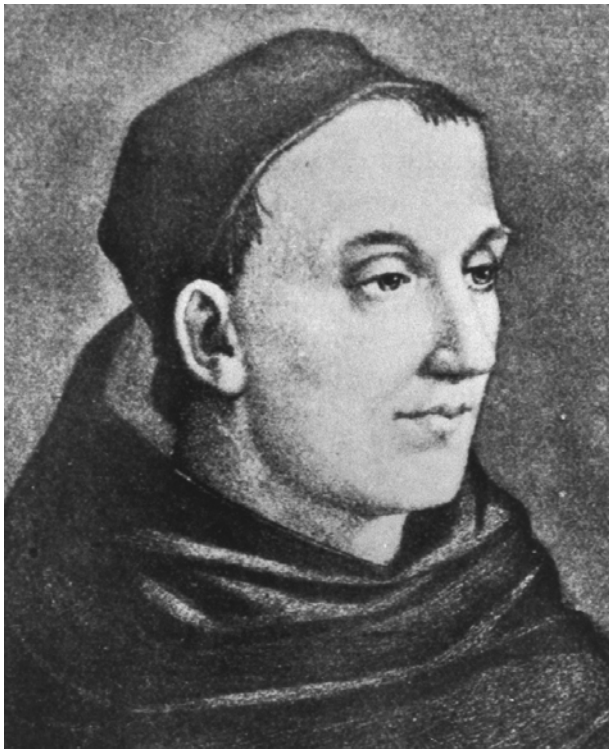
**Vicchio, Italy**

**Died: c. 1455**

**Rome, Italy**

*Italian painter and artist*

**T**he Italian painter Fra Angelico combined the religious style of the Middle Ages (a period in European history from around 500 to around 1500) with the Renaissance's (a period of revived interest



*Fra Angelico.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

in Greek and Roman culture that began in Italy during the fourteenth century) concern for representing mass, space, and light.

### **Early years**

Not much is known about Fra Angelico's early life. He was born around 1400 and was named Guido di Pietro. Around 1418 he and his brother Benedetto took vows to become monks in the Order of Dominican Preachers in Fiesole, Italy, near Florence. Fra Angelico's religious name was Fra Giovanni da Fiesole. The titles Fra Angelico and Beato Angelico came into use only after his death, as a way of honoring his religious life and work.

In the early 1420s Fra Angelico and Fra Benedetto began operating a painter's workshop and a room for copying documents in Fiesole. Many of Fra Angelico's early works were created at the monastery (a house for persons who have taken religious vows) of San Domenico in Fiesole. The *Annunciation* of about 1430 and the *Linaiuoli Altarpiece* (*Madonna of the Linen Guild*) reveal the directions of Fra Angelico's art. His gentle people are modeled in chiaroscuro (the arrangement or treatment of light and dark parts), and these saints and angels stand out from the rest of the picture. Numerous large altarpieces (works of art that decorate the space above and behind an altar) were ordered from Fra Angelico and his popular shop in the 1430s.

### **Other projects**

From 1438 to 1445 Fra Angelico worked on frescoes (paintings done on moist plaster with water-based colors) and altarpieces for the Dominican monastery of San Marco in Florence. The church and monks' quarters were newly rebuilt at this time under the supervision of Cosimo de' Medici, with Michelozzo as architect for the project. The frescoes by the master and his assistants were placed throughout the corridors, chapter house, and rooms. In the midst of the traditional subjects from the life of Christ, figures of Dominican saints meditate (focus all their thoughts) upon the sacred events. At the same time the dramatic effect is increased by the inclusion of architectural details of San Marco itself in some of the scenes.

A masterpiece of panel painting created at the same time as the San Marco project was the *Deposition* altarpiece, requested by

the Strozzi family for the Church of Sta Trinita. The richly colored and shining figures, the wide views of the Tuscan landscape serving as a backdrop to Calvary, and the division into sacred and nonreligious people reveal Fra Angelico as an artist in tune with the ideas and methods of the Renaissance. Yet all of the accomplishments in representation do not lessen the air of religious happiness.

### Later years

The final decade of Fra Angelico's life was spent mainly in Rome (c. 1445–49 and c. 1453–55), with three years in Florence (c. 1450–52), as prior (second in command of a monastery) of San Domenico at Fiesole. His main surviving works from these final years are the frescoes of scenes from the lives of Saints Lawrence and Stephen in the Chapel of Pope Nicholas V in the Vatican, Rome. The dramatic figure groupings serve to sum up the highlights of the long tradition of fourteenth- and early fifteenth-century Florentine fresco painting. In the strict construction and rich detail of the architectural backgrounds, the dignity and luxury of a Roman setting are shown.

In spite of the fact that Fra Angelico's life unfolded in a monastic environment, his art stands as an important link between the first and later generations of Renaissance painting in Florence.

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## MAYA ANGELOU

**Born:** April 4, 1928

**St. Louis, Missouri**

*African American author, poet, and playwright*

Maya Angelou—author, poet, playwright, stage and screen performer, and director—is best known for *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings* (1970), the story of her early life, which recalls a young African American woman's discovery of her self-confidence.

### Eventful early life

Maya Angelou was born Marguerite Johnson on April 4, 1928, in St. Louis, Missouri. After her parents' marriage ended, she and her brother, Bailey (who gave her the name "Maya"), were sent to rural Stamps, Arkansas, to live with their grandmother, who owned a general store. Although her grandmother helped her develop pride and self-confidence, Angelou was devastated when she was raped at the age of eight by her mother's boyfriend while on a visit to St. Louis. After she testified against the man, several of her uncles beat him to death. Believing that she had caused the man's death by speaking his name, Angelou refused to speak for approximately five years. She attended public schools in Arkansas and later California. While still in high school she became the first ever African American female streetcar conductor in San Francisco, California. She gave birth to a son at age sixteen. In 1950 she married Tosh Angelos, a Greek sailor, but the marriage lasted only a few years.



Maya Angelou.

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Later Angelou studied dance and drama and went on to a career in theater. She appeared in *Porgy and Bess*, which gave performances in twenty-two countries. She also acted in several plays on and off Broadway, including *Cabaret for Freedom*, which she wrote with Godfrey Cambridge. During the early 1960s Angelou lived in Cairo, Egypt, where she was the associate editor of *The Arab Observer*. During this time she also contributed articles to *The Ghanaian Times* and was featured on the Ghanaian Broadcasting Corporation programming in Accra, Ghana. During the mid-1960s she became assistant administrator of the School of Music and Drama at the Uni-

versity of Ghana. She was the feature editor of the *African Review* in Accra from 1964 to 1966. After returning to the United States civil rights leader Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (1929–1968) requested she serve as northern coordinator for the Southern Christian Leadership Conference.

### Success as an author

*I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings* (1970), the first in a series of Angelou's autobiographical (telling the story of her own life) works, was a huge success. It describes Angelou's life up to age sixteen, providing a child's point of view about the confusing world of adults. The book concludes with Angelou having regained her self-esteem and caring for her newborn son. In addition to being a sharp account of an African American girl's coming of age, this work offers insights into the social and political climate of the 1930s.

Her next autobiographical work, *Gather Together in My Name* (1974), covers the period immediately after the birth of her son Guy and describes her struggle to care for him as a single parent. *Singin' and Swingin' and Gettin' Merry Like Christmas* (1976) describes Angelou's experiences on the stage and concludes with her return from the international tour of *Porgy and Bess*. *The Heart of A Woman* (1981) shows the mature Angelou becoming more comfortable with her creativity and her success. *All God's Children Need Traveling Shoes* (1986) recalls her four-year stay in Ghana. Angelou wrote about other subjects as well, including a children's book entitled *Kofi and His Magic* (1996).

### Other works and awards

Angelou had been writing poetry since before her novels became popular. Her col-

lections include: *Just Give Me A Cool Drink of Water 'Fore I Diiie* (1971); *Oh Pray My Wings Are Going to Fit Me Well* (1975); *And Still I Rise* (1976), which was made into an Off-Broadway production in 1979; *Shaker, Why Don't You Sing* (1983); *Life Doesn't Frighten Me*, illustrated by celebrated New York artist Jean Michel Basquiat (1993); *Soul Looks Back in Wonder* (1994); and *I Shall Not Be Moved* (1997). Angelou's poetry, with its short lyrics and jazzy rhythms, is especially popular among young people, but her heavy use of short lines and her simple vocabulary has turned off several critics. Other reviewers, however, praise Angelou's poetry for discussing social and political issues that are important to African Americans. For example Angelou's poem "On the Pulse of the Morning," which she recited at the 1993 swearing in of President Bill Clinton (1946–), calls for a new national commitment to unity and social improvement.

Angelou has received many awards for her work, including a nomination for National Book Award, 1970; a Pulitzer Prize nomination, 1972; a Tony Award nomination from the League of New York Theatres and Producers, 1973, for her performance in *Look Away*; a Tony Award nomination for best supporting actress, 1977, for *Roots*; and the North Carolina Award in Literature, 1987. In the 1970s she was appointed to the Bicentennial Commission by President Gerald Ford (1913–) and the National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year by President Jimmy Carter (1924–). She was also named Woman of the Year in Communications by *Ladies' Home Journal*, 1976, and one of the top one hundred most influential women by *Ladies' Home Journal*, 1983. Angelou has also taught at several American

colleges and universities, including the University of California at Los Angeles, the University of Kansas, Wichita State University, and California State University at Sacramento.

### Television and movies

Angelou also worked in television as a writer-producer for 20th Century-Fox, from which her full-length feature film *Sister, Sister* received critical praise. In addition she wrote the screenplays *Georgia, Georgia* and *All Day Long* along with television scripts for *Sister, Sister* and the series premiere of *Brewster Place*. She wrote, produced, and hosted the National Educational Television series *Blacks! Blues! Black!* She also costarred in the motion picture *How to Make an American Quilt* in 1995. Angelou made her first attempt at film directing with the feature length movie *Down in the Delta* (1998). The film told the story of a seventy-year-old woman and her personal journey. Angelou found directing to be a much different experience from writing because with directing you have "ninety crew and the cast and the sets and lights and the sound."

Although Angelou is dedicated to the art of autobiography—a sixth volume, *A Song Flung Up to Heaven*, was published in 2002—in her seventies she remains a force in several different fields. Since the early 1980s she has been Reynolds Professor and writer-in-residence at Wake Forest University. In the year 2000 she was honored by President Clinton with the National Medal of Arts, and in 2002 Hallmark introduced The Maya Angelou Life Mosaic Collection, a series of greeting cards containing her verse. She also has plans to write a cookbook and direct another feature film.

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## KOFI ANNAN

**Born:** April 8, 1938

**Kumasi, Ghana**

*Ghanian-born international diplomat*

**I**nternational diplomat Kofi Annan of Ghana is the seventh secretary-general of the United Nations (UN), the multinational organization created to, among other things, maintain world peace. He is the first black African to head that organization and was awarded the Nobel Prize. Noted for his cautious style of diplomacy, Annan is sometimes criticized for his soft-spokenness, which some say may be mistaken for weakness.

**A worldly scholar**

Kofi Atta Annan was born in Kumasi, in central Ghana, Africa, on April 8, 1938. Since 1960 Ghana has been a republic within the British Commonwealth, a group of nations dependent on Great Britain. Named for an African empire along the Niger River, Ghana was ruled by Great Britain for 113 years as the Gold Coast. Annan is descended

from tribal chiefs on both sides of his family. His father was an educated man, and Annan became accustomed to both traditional and modern ways of life. He has described himself as being “atribal in a tribal world.”

After receiving his early education at a leading boarding school in Ghana, Annan attended the College of Science and Technology in the capital of Kumasi. At the age of twenty, he won a Ford Foundation scholarship for undergraduate studies at Macalester College in St. Paul, Minnesota, where he studied economics. Even then he was showing signs of becoming a diplomat, or someone skilled in international relations. Annan received his bachelor's degree in economics in 1961. Shortly after completing his studies at Macalester College, Annan headed for Geneva, Switzerland, where he attended graduate classes in economics at the Institut Universitaire des Hautes Etudes Internationales.

**Early career**

Following his graduate studies in Geneva, Annan joined the staff of the World Health Organization (WHO), a branch of the United Nations. He served as an administrative officer and as budget officer in Geneva. Later UN posts took him to Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and New York City, New York. Annan always assumed that he would return to his native land after college, although he was disturbed by the unrest and numerous changes of government that occurred there during the 1970s.

Annan became the Alfred P. Sloan fellow at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. At the end of his fellowship in 1972, he was awarded a master of science degree in man-

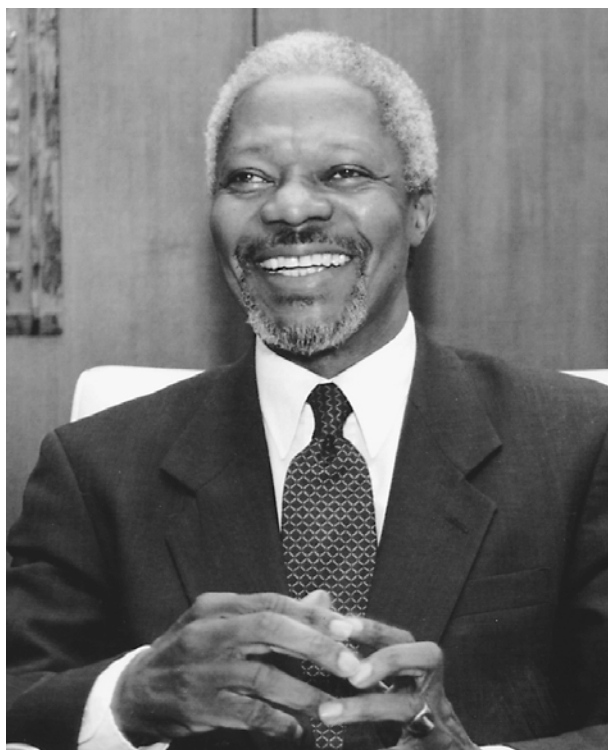
agement. Rather than return to Ghana upon graduation, he accepted a position at the UN headquarters in New York City.

### ***Work with the UN***

In 1974 he moved to Cairo, Egypt, as chief civilian personnel officer in the UN Emergency Force. Annan briefly changed careers in 1974 when he left the United Nations to serve as managing director of the Ghana Tourist Development Company.

Annan returned to international diplomacy and the United Nations in 1976. For the next seven years, he was associated with the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees in Geneva. He returned to the UN headquarters in New York City in 1983 as director of the budget in the financial services office. Later in the 1980s, he filled the post of assistant secretary-general in the Office of Human Resources Management and served as security coordinator for the United Nations. In 1990, he became assistant secretary-general for another department at the United Nations, the Office of Program Planning, Budget, and Finance. In fulfilling his duties to the United Nations, Annan has spent most of his adult life in the United States, specifically at the UN headquarters in New York City.

Annan had by this time filled a number of roles at the United Nations, ranging from peacekeeping to managerial, and the 1990s were no different. In 1990 he negotiated the release of hostages in Iraq following the invasion of Kuwait. Five years later, he oversaw the transition of the United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR) to the multinational Implementation Force (IFOR), a UN peacekeeping organization. In this transfer of



*Kofi Annan.*

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responsibility, operations in the former Yugoslavia were turned over to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

In recognition of his abilities, Annan was appointed secretary-general, the top post of the UN, by the UN General Assembly in December 1996. He began serving his four-year term of office on January 1, 1997. Joining him was his second wife, former lawyer Nane Lagergren of Sweden. She is the niece of the diplomat Raoul Wallenberg (1912–c. 1947), who saved thousands of European Jews from the German Nazis during World War II (1939–45), when American-led forces fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan.



Annan and Lagergren were married in 1985. The couple has one child.

### ***Heading the United Nations***

The post of secretary-general of the United Nations has been called one of the world's "oddest jobs." According to the United Nations web site, "Equal parts diplomat and activist . . . the Secretary-General stands before the world community as the very emblem of the United Nations." The secretary-general is the boss of ten thousand international civil servants and the chief administrator of a huge international parliamentary system (a governing body with representation from many nations).

In this post, Annan is expected to coordinate, although he does not control, the activities of such groups as the WHO and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). He is also expected to practice "preventive diplomacy," meaning he and his staff must try to prevent, contain, or stop international disputes. Above all, Annan must try to maintain world peace.

In an address to the National Press Club, Annan declared, "If war is the failure of diplomacy, then . . . diplomacy . . . is our first line of defense. The world today spends billions preparing for war; shouldn't we spend a billion or two preparing for peace?"

### ***Questioning his role***

Almost immediately after Annan's election to secretary-general came the question: Is this man just too nice a person for the job? His reputation for "soft-spokenness," according to *U.S. News & World Report*, could be

mistaken for weakness. Another factor that made people question Annan's toughness was his involvement in the UN efforts at peacekeeping in Bosnia from 1992 to 1996. Despite the United Nations's presence, Bosnia remained the site of an ethnic war (a war between religious or cultural groups), in which thousands died. Sir Marrack Goulding, head of peacekeeping, once commented that Annan never expressed his doubts about the UN policy in a forceful manner. Annan disagreed, saying that he always pressed the involved countries—the United States, Britain, France, and Russia—to rethink their policy on sending soldiers to the peacekeeping force. Not one to raise his voice in anger, Annan favored diplomacy. In a press conference in Baghdad, Iraq, in 1998, Annan noted, "You can do a lot with diplomacy, but of course you can do a lot more with diplomacy backed up by fairness and force."

All eyes turned to Annan and his handling of the touchy situation with Iraq in 1998. Early in that year, threats of war seemed all too real. Saddam Hussein (1937–), president of Iraq, became once again a threatening presence by refusing to let UN observers into certain areas of his country, as had been previously agreed upon, to check for illegal possession of chemical-warfare items and the like. Then-president Bill Clinton (1946–) hinted strongly at the use of force to make Hussein agree to let in the UN officials. In his role as secretary-general, Annan went to Iraq in February of 1998 to meet with the Iraqi leader. After talking with Annan, Hussein agreed to what he had refused before—unlimited UN access to the eight sites that he had previously called completely off-limits. Because of Annan's intervention, war was avoided.

***Annan in a new world***

Annan's code of soft-spoken diplomacy was given a boost by the outcome of his talks with Saddam Hussein in 1998. UN observers wait to see how additional crises will be handled by the gentle but determined man from Ghana.

In the summer of 2001, the United Nations unanimously appointed Kofi Annan to his second five-year term as secretary-general. On October 12, 2001, the Nobel Peace Prize was awarded jointly to the United Nations and Kofi Annan. The Nobel citation pointed out that Annan had brought new life to the peacekeeping organization, highlighted the United Nations's fight for civil rights, and boldly taken on the new challenges of terrorism and acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease of the immune system).

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## SUSAN B. ANTHONY

**Born:** February 15, 1820

Adams, Massachusetts

**Died:** March 13, 1906

Rochester, New York

*American women's rights activist, abolitionist, and women's suffrage leader*

Susan B. Anthony was an early leader of the American women's suffrage (right to vote) movement and a pioneer in the struggle to gain equality for women. As an active abolitionist, or opponent of slavery, she campaigned for the freedom of slaves.

***Early influences***

Susan Brownwell Anthony was born on February 15, 1820, in Adams, Massachusetts. She was the second of seven children born to Daniel and Lucy Read Anthony. Her father, the owner of a cotton mill, was a religious man who taught his children to show their love for God by working to help other people. Susan began attending a boarding school in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in 1837. She left and began working as a teacher after growing debt forced her father to sell his business and move the family to a farm near Rochester, New York.

Anthony continued teaching to help her family pay the bills until 1849, when her father asked her to come home to run the family farm so that he could spend more time trying to develop an insurance business. Many famous reformers, such as Frederick Douglass (1817–1895), William Lloyd Garrison (1805–1879), and Wendell Phillips (1811–1884), came to visit Anthony's father during this time. Hearing their discussions helped Susan form her strong views on slavery, women's rights, and temperance (the avoidance of alcohol).

***Women's rights***

Although her family attended the first women's rights convention held in Seneca Falls and Rochester, New York, in 1848,



Susan B. Anthony.

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Anthony did not take up the cause until 1851. Until that time, she had devoted most of her time to the temperance movement. However, when male members of the movement refused to let her speak at rallies simply because she was a woman, she realized that women had to win the right to speak in public and to vote before they could accomplish anything else. Her lifelong friendship and partnership with Elizabeth Cady Stanton (1815–1902), who had proposed a resolution giving women the right to vote, also began in 1851.

Anthony attended her first women's rights convention in 1852. From that first

convention until the end of the Civil War (1861–65), she campaigned from door-to-door, in legislatures, and in meetings for the two causes of women's rights and the abolition of slavery. The passage of the New York State Married Woman's Property and Guardianship Law in 1860, which gave married women in New York greater property rights, was her first major legislative victory.

### *Formation of suffrage movement*

The Civil War was fought between northern and southern states mainly over the issues of slavery and the South's decision to leave the Union to form an independent nation. With the outbreak of the Civil War, Anthony focused her attention on ending slavery. She organized the Women's National Loyal League, which gathered petitions to force passage of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution to end slavery. When the war ended, she increased her efforts to gain the right to vote for women as well as for African American males. However, her former male allies from the antislavery movement were unwilling to help her fight for the first cause, saying the time was not yet right for women's suffrage.

Saddened by this defeat but refusing to give up the fight, Anthony worked solely for women's suffrage from this time to the end of her life, organizing the National Woman Suffrage Association with Stanton. The association's New York weekly, *The Revolution*, was created in 1868 to promote women's causes. After it went bankrupt in 1870, Anthony traveled across the country for six years giving lectures to raise money to pay the newspaper's ten-thousand-dollar debt.

In 1872 Susan B. Anthony and fifteen

supporters from Rochester became the first women ever to vote in a presidential election. That they were promptly arrested for their boldness did not bother Anthony. She was eager to test women's legal right to vote under the Fourteenth Amendment by taking the case to the U.S. Supreme Court. Free on bail of one thousand dollars, Anthony campaigned throughout the country with a carefully prepared legal argument: "Is It a Crime for a U.S. Citizen to Vote?" She lost her case in 1873 in Rochester following some questionable rulings by the judge and was barred from appealing the result to the Supreme Court.

### Later years

Susan B. Anthony spent the rest of her life working for the federal suffrage amendment—an exhausting job that took her not only to Congress but to political conventions, labor meetings, and lecture halls in every part of the country. After she noticed that most historical literature failed to mention any women, in 1877 she and her supporters sat down to begin writing the monumental and invaluable *History of Woman Suffrage* in five volumes. She later worked with her biographer, Ida Husted Harper, on two of the three volumes of *The Life and Work of Susan B. Anthony*. The material was drawn mainly from the scrapbooks she had kept throughout most of her life, which are now in the Library of Congress, and from her diaries and letters.

Anthony remained active in the struggle for women's suffrage until the end of her life. She attended her last suffrage convention just one month before her death. She closed her last public speech with the words, "Failure is impossible." When she died in her Rochester home on March 13, 1906, only four states

had granted women the right to vote. Fourteen years later the Nineteenth Amendment, which gave women the right to vote, was added to the U.S. Constitution.

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## VIRGINIA APGAR

**Born:** June 7, 1909

Westfield, New Jersey

**Died:** August 7, 1974

New York, New York

*American medical researcher and educator*

Virginia Apgar forever changed the field of perinatology (the care of infants around the time of birth). She was the creator of the Apgar Newborn Scoring System, a method of evaluating the health of infants minutes after birth in order to make sure they receive proper medical care. Her lifetime of energetic work resulted in standard medical procedures for mothers and babies that have prevented thousands of infant deaths.



Virginia Apgar.

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

### *Going into medicine*

Virginia Apgar was born on June 7, 1909, in Westfield, New Jersey. Her father, a businessman, and other members of the family shared a love of music, and Apgar played the violin during family concerts. Apgar's childhood home also contained a basement laboratory, where her father built a telescope and pursued scientific experiments with electricity and radio waves (electromagnetic waves in the range of radio frequencies). Perhaps due to this atmosphere of curiosity and investigation, Apgar decided she wanted a scientific career in the field of medicine. After graduating from high school, where she

played in the school orchestra and participated in athletics, she entered Mount Holyoke College with the plan of becoming a doctor. Although she had to take a number of jobs to support herself through college, she graduated with a bachelor's degree in 1929.

Apgar's financial situation did not improve when she enrolled at the College of Physicians and Surgeons at Columbia University in New York City the following September. The United States would soon be severely affected by the Great Depression (1929–39), a period of nationwide economic crisis. Determined to stay in school, Apgar borrowed money in order to complete her classes. She emerged in 1933 with a medical degree and a fourth-place rank in her graduating class, but also with a large financial debt. She began to consider how she could best support herself in the medical profession. She saw that even male surgeons were having trouble finding work in New York City. As a woman in what was then a male-dominated profession, she realized that her chances of success were slim. She felt that she was more likely to be successful in the field of anesthesiology, the study or practice of giving patients anesthesia. Administered by physicians called anesthesiologists, anesthetics are drugs or gas that numbs the pain of medical procedures or causes patients to lose consciousness before a procedure is performed.

Traditionally nurses had been responsible for administering anesthesia, but at that time doctors had also begun entering the field. Women physicians in particular were encouraged to pursue medical anesthesiology, perhaps because it was still considered a female area. Therefore in 1935 Apgar began a two-year program of study and work in

anesthesiology. During this time she studied not only at Columbia, but also at the University of Wisconsin in Madison and at Bellevue Hospital in New York.

Apgar's choice of career allowed her to realize her goal of securing a job. She was hired as director of the anesthesia division at Columbia University in 1938. Her new position, however, proved to be a challenging one. She struggled to get surgeons to recognize the anesthesiologist as a fellow doctor who was their equal, not their inferior. She eventually increased the number of physicians in the anesthesiology division, however, and in 1941 won adequate funding for the division and its employees after threatening to quit her post if the school refused her requests. A few years later Columbia University created a separate department of anesthesia for training physicians and conducting research. When the head of the new department was selected in 1949, however, Apgar was passed over in favor of a man. Instead she was named a full professor in the department, making her the first woman to reach such a level at Columbia.

### ***The Apgar Newborn Scoring System***

It was in this position as a teacher and researcher that Apgar would make her greatest contributions to medicine over the next ten years. She began to focus her work in the area of anesthesia used during childbirth. Apgar realized that the period just after a baby is born is an extremely important time for many infants. At the time babies were not usually evaluated (assessed in regard to their health) carefully at birth by doctors, who were often more concerned with the health of the mother. Because of this lack of an organ-

ized examination, many life-threatening conditions were not identified in infants. To provide a quick and efficient way to decide which babies required special care, Apgar created a five-part test that scored a child's heart rate, respiration (breathing), muscle tone, color, and reflexes. The test, known as the Apgar Newborn Scoring System, was to be performed one minute after birth. This later expanded to five and ten minutes as well. Developed in 1949, Apgar's system eventually became a worldwide standard among physicians for determining a child's chance of survival and rate of development.

Another victory for infant health was won with Apgar's research into the effects of anesthesia given to mothers during childbirth. During the time she researched these effects, Apgar found that the anesthesia called cyclopropane had a noticeable negative effect on a baby's overall condition. She immediately stopped using this anesthesia for mothers in labor, and other doctors across the country quickly did so also after Apgar published a report on her research.

### ***Birth defect research***

After a more than twenty-year career at Columbia, Apgar left her post as professor to earn a master of public health degree at Johns Hopkins University. Her new career took her to the March of Dimes organization, an organization that provides services and support to children and pregnant women. In 1959 she was hired as the head of the division on congenital birth defects (physical or developmental abnormalities that are caused before birth). In 1969 she became the head of the March of Dimes research program, and during her time in this role she changed the

foundation's focus so that it concentrated on trying to prevent birth defects. In an effort to educate the public about this topic, she also gave many lectures and cowrote a book titled *Is My Baby All Right?* in 1972. Later, as a professor at Cornell University, she became the first U.S. medical professor to specialize in birth defects.

During her lifetime Apgar made significant contributions to science not only in the laboratory, but also in the classroom. She instructed hundreds of doctors and left a lasting mark on the field of neonatal care (the care of newborns). Apgar received a number of awards recognizing her role in medicine, including the Ralph Waters Medal from the American Society of Anesthesiologists; the Gold Medal of Columbia University; and *Ladies' Home Journal* named her Woman of the Year in 1973. In addition she was the recipient of four honorary degrees, the American Academy of Pediatrics founded a prize in her name, and an academic chair was created in her honor at Mount Holyoke College.

On August 7, 1974, Apgar died in New York City at the age of sixty-five. She was remembered as an honest and encouraging teacher who inspired numerous doctors in their practice of medicine and research. The modern fields of anesthesiology and neonatal care owe much to her pioneering work.

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## BENIGNO AQUINO

**Born:** November 27, 1932

**Tarlac Province, Luzon, Philippines**

**Died:** August 21, 1983

**Manila, Philippines**

*Filipino politician*

Benigno Aquino of the Philippines was a leading opponent of the rule of President Ferdinand Marcos (1917–1989), who governed the Philippines from 1966 to 1986. Aquino's opposition ended in August 1983 when, after living in the United States for three years, he returned to the Philippine capital of Manila and was assassinated (killed) at the airport. Aquino's death touched off massive demonstrations against President Marcos.

#### **Youthful accomplishments**

Benigno "Ninoy" Aquino was born on November 27, 1932, in Tarlac Province, on the island of Luzon, to a prominent family. He was the grandson of a general and the son of a Philippine senator who was also a wealthy landowner. His ambition and energy stood out early when, at age seventeen, he was sent by the *Manila Times* newspaper to report on the Korean War (1950–53). The war was between

the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea) and the Republic of Korea (South Korea), and was a war in which the United States and China eventually joined.

At age twenty-two Aquino became the Philippines' youngest mayor in his hometown of Concepcion. Just six years later he became governor of Tarlac province (a position similar to governing a state). In 1967 Aquino once again made history when he became the youngest senator ever elected in the Philippines. Meanwhile he married Corazon Cojuangco, with whom he eventually raised five children.

### *A fallen leader*

Aquino became famous for his gifts as a public speaker and for his brilliant mind, as well as his great ambition. He became the leading candidate for the presidency in 1973, when President Marcos was scheduled to leave office after completing the maximum two terms as president. Aquino's ambition to be president was never realized, however, because President Marcos declared martial law (a state of emergency in which military authorities are given temporary rule). At the same time Marcos dissolved the constitution, claiming supreme power and jailing his political opponents, including Aquino. Aquino was charged with murder, subversion (intention to undermine legal authority), and illegal possession of firearms. Although he denied the charges, Aquino was found guilty and was convicted by a military tribunal, or military court, and spent over seven years in prison. In 1980 he was allowed to go to the United States for a heart bypass operation. He remained in the United States as a refugee until returning to the



*Benigno Aquino.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

Philippines in 1983. Upon arriving at the Manila airport he was shot and killed.

Following the assassination President Marcos was pressured to appoint a five-person, politically neutral investigative board, led by Judge Corazon Agrava. Marcos and the military stated that a lone gunman who had been hired by the Communist Party had carried out the assassination. The alleged gunman, who had been shot at the airport immediately following the shooting of Aquino, could not be cross-examined. The military carried out its own investigation, and reported that no military personnel were involved in the death.



The official commission's majority report found that Aquino was not slain by the alleged gunman, as Marcos and the military claimed, but was the victim of a "criminal conspiracy" by the military led by General Fabian C. Ver, who was the armed forces chief of staff. He was also a close friend and cousin of President Marcos. The commission's findings were astonishing, although from the beginning most Filipinos doubted the official version of the assassination. No proof was ever presented that directly showed Marcos was involved, but almost no one in the Philippines believed that military generals would order the execution of Aquino on their own. Those who suspected Marcos's involvement noted that Aquino posed a threat as someone who might unite the opposition and who had been the president's main rival for decades.

### ***Aquino's legacy***

As it turned out the democratic opposition to Marcos was strongest after its leader's death. As Marcos lost the trust of his people, the Philippine economy also fell apart. By 1985 the nation was in political and economic chaos, with Marcos under attack by the press and by the strengthened political opposition, which did well in elections.

In December 1985 the court proclaimed that General Ver and the others charged with Aquino's murder were not guilty. Marcos promptly returned Ver to his former position. Popular unrest with Marcos's rule grew steadily, however. Within weeks a political movement formed around Aquino's widow, Corazon. She was elected president of the Philippines in 1986, unseating Marcos.

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## YASIR ARAFAT

**Born: October 24, 1929**

**Cairo, Egypt**

*Palestinian political leader, military leader,  
and president*

Yasir Arafat was elected chairman of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) in 1969. Though originally in favor of an all-out war to end Israel's occupation of Arab lands in the Middle East, from 1974 on he and the PLO claimed to be interested in a peaceful resolution to the Palestinian problem.

### ***Background***

Yasir Arafat was born Abdel-Rahman Abdel-Raouf Arafat al-Qudwa al-Husseini on October 24, 1929, to a Palestinian family living in Cairo, Egypt. His father was a merchant. Arafat's youth was spent in Cairo and Jerusalem. At that time, in the decades following World War I (1914–18), the British ruled Palestine. Many Jewish people from Europe sought to build a Jewish homeland there, but many Muslim and Christian Arabs who lived in Palestine opposed Jewish immi-

gration because they were afraid it would upset the cultural balance there.

While still in his teens Arafat became involved with a group seeking independence for Palestinian Arabs. When the British moved out of Palestine in 1948 and the Jewish state of Israel was created on a piece of Palestinian land, fighting broke out between the Jewish and Arab communities. The Jews were easily able to beat the Palestinians. As a result approximately one million Palestinians were forced to flee their homeland and seek refuge in neighboring Arab nations. Thus two-thirds of pre-war Palestine then became Israel. The rest came under the control of two Arab neighbors, Egypt and Jordan.

### ***Fatah and the PLO***

After the Palestinians' 1948 defeat, Arafat went to Cairo, where he studied engineering and founded a student union. By the end of the 1950s, he helped to found al-Fatah which became one of the main groups in the new Palestinian independence movement. Arafat was one of Fatah's most important founders and sat on the group's central committee. Fatah members argued that Palestinians should seek to regain their country by their own efforts, including guerrilla warfare (independent acts of war and terrorism) against Israel. This armed struggle was launched in 1965. The attacks did not damage the Jewish military, but they did increase Arafat's popularity. Meanwhile, in 1964, Palestinian freedom fighters in Arab countries had created their own confederation, which they called the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO).

In 1967 the Israelis defeated the Arabs in the Six-Day War. Israel took over the rest of Palestine, along with sections of Egypt and



*Yasir Arafat.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

Syria. The Arab states were embarrassed by this defeat. Fatah members were able to assume control of the PLO, with Arafat elected chairman of the executive committee. Guerrilla camps were set up in Jordan along the border with Israel. In September 1970 Jordan's King Hussein (1935–1999) sent his army into the camps, killing many Palestinians in what became known as Black September. The PLO began to engage in terrorist acts, including the murder of eleven Israeli athletes at the Olympic Games in Munich, Germany, in 1972.

### ***Endless peace talks***

In 1973 Egypt and Syria attacked Israel in the Yom Kippur War, an attempt to regain

lands Israel occupied six years earlier. This led to efforts by the United States to seek peace in the region. In 1974 the PLO voted to be included in any settlement. It also called for the creation of a Palestinian national authority in two areas the Israelis occupied in 1967, the West Bank and the Gaza Strip. Participating in a debate on the Middle East at the United Nations General Assembly, Arafat said, "I have come bearing an olive branch and a freedom fighter's gun. Do not let the olive branch fall from my hand." The Israelis and the Americans refused to have any dealings with the PLO until it recognized a United Nations resolution regarding Israel's right to exist. Arafat and the PLO would not satisfy this condition.

Arafat and the PLO also opposed peace agreements proposed by Egyptian president Anwar Sadat (1918–1981) in 1977–79. These agreements were known as the Camp David Accords, because they had been drawn up in Maryland at the U.S. presidential retreat of that name. Egypt, Israel, and the United States signed them in 1978. They called for the establishment of Palestinian self-government in the West Bank and Gaza, but the plan never went into effect. The PLO continued its demand for an independent Palestinian state in the area. Arafat worked to make peace with Jordan and Egypt throughout the 1980s, and sought help from the United States in setting up a confederation between Jordan and a Palestinian entity that would be established in the West Bank and Gaza. King Hussein broke off talks with Arafat, however, saying that the PLO refused to compromise.

In 1993 Arafat and Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin (1922–1995) signed the Oslo Accords. The following year the two men and

Israeli foreign minister Shimon Peres shared the Nobel Peace Prize for their efforts. The Oslo Accords placed the city of Jericho, the Israeli-occupied Gaza Strip, and eventually the remainder of the West Bank under Palestinian self-rule. In January 1996 Arafat was elected president of the Palestinian National Authority (PNA), the area's new governing body. Later that same year an agreement was reached to remove Israelis from the last occupied city in the West Bank. In return Arafat promised to amend the portion of the Palestinian National Charter calling for the destruction of Israel.

### *Same old situation*

Israel's decision to build homes in Jerusalem started up the terrorism campaign once again in the Middle East, placing peace efforts on very shaky ground. In July 2000 peace talks between Arafat, U.S. president Bill Clinton (1946–), and Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Barak (1942–) at Camp David did not lead to any agreement. Arafat had said that he would declare a Palestinian state on September 13, 2000, with or without an agreement with Israel. He finally agreed to wait in the hopes that more talks might lead to a settlement.

Unfortunately, outbreaks of violence began between Palestinians and Israeli security forces. In October 2000 Arafat, Barak, and Clinton met and came up with a "statement of intent" to end the violence, but neither side was completely satisfied. Nearly one hundred people, almost all of them Palestinians, had been killed in the clashes between Israeli security forces and Palestinians. In November 2000 Arafat told Fatah activists to cease firing on Israelis. Steady gunfire followed news of Arafat's announcement, however, with Palestinians shooting at Israeli

positions from an apartment building. Israeli forces returned fire with machine guns.

Though Arafat was offered a peace proposal designed by Clinton and approved by Barak in January 2001, the leader found it unsatisfactory (it did not allow displaced Palestinians the right to return to their homeland), and the Arab-Israeli violence in the Middle East continued. After the attacks on the United States on September 11, 2001, the U.S. government increased the pressure on the Israelis and the Palestinians to reach a settlement. The United States hoped to involve Arab nations in the fight against terrorism. Despite Arafat's demands for it to stop, there seemed to be no end to the violence, however. In December 2001 the Israeli government severed all ties to the PNA, leaving little hope of a resolution anytime soon. And on two occasions in 2002, the Israeli army took over the majority of Arafat's compound, essentially making him a prisoner in his own home.

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## ARCHIMEDES

**Born:** c. 287 B.C.E.

**Syracuse**

**Died:** 212 B.C.E.

**Syracuse**

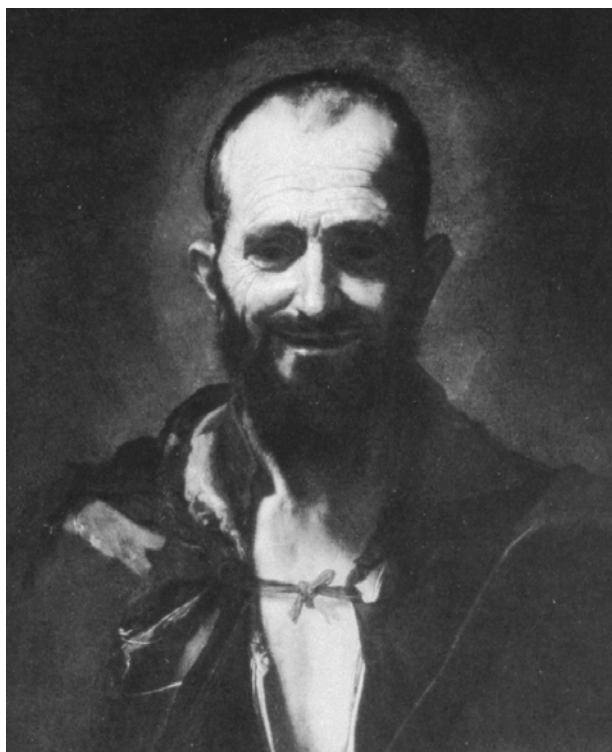
*Greek mathematician*

Archimedes is considered one of the greatest mathematicians of all time. He is also famed for his inventions and for the colorful—though unproven—ways he is believed to have made them.

### Early life

Little is known about Archimedes's life. He probably was born in the seaport city of Syracuse, a Greek settlement on the island of Sicily in the Mediterranean Sea. He was the son of an astronomer (someone who studies outer space, such as the stars) named Phidias. He may also have been related to Hieron, King of Syracuse, and his son Gelon. Archimedes studied in the learning capital of Alexandria, Egypt, at the school that had been established by the Greek mathematician Euclid (third century B.C.E.). He later returned to live in his native city of Syracuse.

There are many stories about how Archimedes made his discoveries. A famous one tells how he uncovered an attempt to cheat King Hieron. The king ordered a golden crown and gave the crown's maker the exact amount of gold needed. The maker delivered a crown of the required weight, but Hieron suspected that some silver had been used instead of gold. He asked Archimedes to think about the matter. One day Archimedes was considering it while he was getting into a bathtub. He noticed that the amount of water overflowing the tub was proportional (related consistently) to the amount of his body that was being immersed (covered by water). This gave him an idea for solving the problem of the crown. He was so thrilled that he ran naked through the streets shouting, "Eureka!" (Greek for "I have discovered it!").



*Archimedes.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

There are several ways Archimedes may have determined the amount of silver in the crown. One likely method relies on an idea that is now called Archimedes's principle. It states that a body immersed in a fluid is buoyed up (pushed up) by a force that is equal to the weight of fluid that is displaced (pushed out of place) by the body. Using this method, he would have first taken two equal weights of gold and silver and compared their weights when immersed in water. Next he would have compared the weight of the crown and an equal weight of pure silver in water in the same way. The difference between these two comparisons would indicate that the crown was not pure gold.

Archimedes also studied aspects of the lever and pulley. A lever is a kind of basic machine in which a bar is used to raise or move a weight, while a pulley uses a wheel and a rope or chain to lift loads. Such mechanical investigations would help Archimedes assist in defending Syracuse when it came under attack.

## ***Wartime and other inventions***

According to the Greek biographer Plutarch (c. C.E. 46–c. C.E. 120), Archimedes's military inventions helped defend his home city when it was attacked by Roman forces. Plutarch wrote that after Hieron died, the Roman general Marcus Claudius Marcellus (c. 268 B.C.E.–208 B.C.E.) attacked Syracuse by both land and sea. According to Plutarch Archimedes's catapults (machines that could hurl objects such as heavy stones) forced back the Roman forces on land. Later writers claimed that Archimedes also set the Roman ships on fire by focusing an arrangement of mirrors on them. Nevertheless, despite Archimedes's efforts, Syracuse eventually surrendered to the Romans. Archimedes was killed after the city was taken, although it is not known exactly how this occurred.

Perhaps while in Egypt, Archimedes invented the water screw, a machine for raising water to bring it to fields. Another invention was a miniature planetarium, a sphere whose motion imitated that of the earth, sun, moon, and the five planets that were then known to exist.

## ***Contributions to mathematics***

Euclid's book *Elements* had included practically all the results of Greek geometry up to Archimedes's time. But Archimedes

continued Euclid's work more than anyone before him. One way he did this was to extend what is known as the "method of exhaustion." This method is used to determine the areas and volumes of figures with curved lines and surfaces, such as circles, spheres, pyramids, and cones. Archimedes's investigation of the method of exhaustion helped lead to the current form of mathematics called integral calculus. Although his method is now outdated, the advances that finally outdated it did not occur until about two thousand years after Archimedes lived.

Archimedes also came closer than anyone had before him to determining the value of pi, or the number that gives the ratio (relation) of a circle's circumference (its boundary line) to its diameter (the length of a line passing through its center). In addition, in his work *The Sand Reckoner*, he created a new way to show very large numbers. Before this, numbers had been represented by letters of the alphabet, a method that had been very limited.

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## HANNAH ARENDT

**Born:** October 14, 1906  
Hanover, Germany

**Died:** December 4, 1975

New York, New York

*German philosopher and writer*

A Jewish girl forced to flee Germany during World War II (1939–45), Hannah Arendt analyzed major issues of the twentieth century and produced an original and radical political philosophy.

### Early life and career

Hannah Arendt was born on October 14, 1906, in Hanover, Germany, the only child of middle-class Jewish parents of Russian descent. A bright child whose father died in 1913, she was encouraged by her mother in intellectual and academic pursuits. As a university student in Germany she studied with the most original scholars of that time: Rudolf Bultmann (1888–1976) and Martin Heidegger (1889–1976) in philosophy; the phenomenologist (one who studies human awareness) Edmund Husserl (1859–1938); and the existentialist (one who studies human existence) Karl Jaspers (1883–1969). In 1929 Arendt received her doctorate degree and married Gunther Stern.

In 1933 Arendt was arrested and briefly imprisoned for gathering evidence of Nazi anti-Semitism (evidence that proved the Nazis were a ruthless German army regime aimed at ridding Europe of its Jewish population). Shortly after the outbreak of World War II she fled to France, where she worked for Jewish refugee organizations (organizations aimed at helping Jews that were forced to flee Germany). In 1940 she and her second husband, Heinrich Blücher, were held captive in southern France. They escaped and made their way to New York in 1941.



Hannah Arendt.

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Throughout the war years Arendt wrote a political column for the Jewish weekly *Aufbau*, and began publishing articles in leading Jewish journals. As her circle of friends expanded to include leading American intellectuals, her writings found a wider audience. Her first major book, *The Origins of Totalitarianism* (1951), argued that modern totalitarianism (government with total political power without competition) was a new and distinct form of government that used terror to control the mass society. "Origins" was the first major effort to analyze the historical conditions that had given rise to Germany's Adolph Hitler (1889–1945) and Rus-

sia's Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), and was widely studied in the 1950s.

### ***Labor, work, and action***

A second major work, *The Human Condition* (1958), followed. Here, and in a volume of essays, *Between Past and Future* (1961), Arendt clearly defined themes from her earlier work: in a rapidly developing world, humans were no longer able to find solutions in established traditions of political authority, philosophy, religion, or even common sense. Her solution was as radical (extreme) as the problem: "to think what we are doing."

*The Human Condition* established Arendt's academic reputation and led to a visiting appointment at Princeton University—the first time a woman was a full-time professor there. *On Revolution* (1963), a volume of her Princeton lectures, expressed her enthusiasm at becoming an American citizen by exploring the historical background and requirements of political freedom.

In 1961 Arendt attended the trial in Jerusalem of Adolf Eichmann (1906–1962), a Nazi who had been involved in the murder of large numbers of Jews during the Holocaust (when Nazis imprisoned or killed millions of Jews during World War II). Her reports appeared first in *The New Yorker* and then as *Eichmann in Jerusalem* (1964). They were frequently misunderstood and rejected, especially her claim that Eichmann was more of a puppet than radically evil. Her public reputation among even some former friends never recovered from this controversy.

### ***Later career***

At the University of Chicago (1963–1967) and the New School for Social Research

in New York City (1967–1975), Arendt's brilliant lectures inspired countless students in social thought, philosophy, religious studies, and history. Frequently uneasy in public, she was an energetic conversationalist in smaller gatherings. Even among friends, though, she would sometimes excuse herself and become totally absorbed in some new line of thought that had occurred to her.

During the late 1960s Arendt devoted herself to a variety of projects: essays on current political issues, such as civil unrest and war, published as *Crises of the Republic* (1972); portraits of men and women who offered some explanation on the dark times of the twentieth century, which became *Men in Dark Times* (1968); and a two-volume English edition of Karl Jaspers's *The Great Philosophers* (1962 and 1966).

In 1973 and 1974 Arendt delivered the well-received Gifford Lectures in Scotland, which were later published as *The Life of the Mind* (1979). Tragically, Arendt never completed these lectures as she died of a heart attack in New York City on December 4, 1975.

Arendt was honored throughout her later life by a series of academic prizes. Frequently attacked for controversial and sometimes odd judgments, Hannah Arendt died as she lived—an original interpreter of human nature in the face of modern political disasters.

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## JEAN-BERTRAND ARISTIDE

**Born:** July 15, 1953

**Douyon, Haiti**

*Haitian president*

A man of the people and loved by many in his home country, Jean-Bertrand Aristide was first elected president of Haiti by a large margin in 1990. He was removed from power in a military takeover in 1991, however. Aristide lived abroad until 1994, then a U.S. military occupation of Haiti restored him to power. In 1995 his hand-picked successor was elected president. In 2000 Aristide won his second term.

### Early years and education

Jean-Bertrand Aristide was born on July 15, 1953, in Port-Salut, a small town along Haiti's southern coast. When Aristide was just three months old, his father passed away. His mother, who wanted to provide Jean and his sister with a better life, moved the family to Port-au-Prince, Haiti. Jean studied under the priests of the Society of St. Francis de Sales (or the Salesian Order) of the Roman Catholic Church. The Salesian Order, with European and American houses and members, focused on the religious instruction of Haiti's poor and orphaned children. Aristide received his early education in their schools and later attended their seminary (an institute for training priests) in Haiti. In 1979 he earned a bachelor's degree in psychology at the State University of Haiti. He was later sent to Israel, Egypt, Britain, and Canada for biblical studies. He learned to read and speak





*Jean-Bertrand Aristide.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

French, Spanish, English, Hebrew, Italian, German, and Portuguese in addition to his native Creole, which is spoken by 90 percent of Haitians.

### ***Religion and politics***

Aristide became a priest in 1982. In 1988, however, he was expelled from the Salesian Order for preaching too politically and for what Aristide called his “fidelity [faithfulness] to the poor.” The Vatican (the headquarters of the Roman Catholic Church) in Rome, Italy, and his local bishop had warned him to preach less radically, or less outside the mainstream, and to stop turning

the members of his church against the Haitian state. From the time he became a priest, Aristide had condemned Haiti’s lack of democracy. At the Church of St. Jean Bosco in the poorest part of Port-au-Prince he argued that only a religious and political cleansing could save the country.

For all but the first five years of Aristide’s life, a harsh family dictatorship (a government in which power is controlled by one person or only a few people) led by François “Papa Doc” Duvalier (1907–1971) and his son, Jean-Paul “Baby Doc” Duvalier (1951–), had ruled Haiti. Human rights violations were common. Ordinary Haitians lived in fear of a violent group known as the “tonton macoutes,” who terrorized the population. The ruling family and the state were one and the same, and the Duvaliers preyed viciously on the people. Corruption was everywhere.

Aristide’s opposition to the dictatorship grew out of his religious beliefs and his feelings for the suffering Haitian people. He may have thought that the Duvalier dictatorship was crumbling. After months of popular protest, some of which was inspired by Aristide’s preachings, Baby Doc fled from Haiti to France in early 1986.

The military groups that succeeded Baby Doc in power also oppressed the poor. Aristide criticized the reigns of both General Prosper Avril and Lieutenant General Henri Namphy. In revenge the tonton macoutes attacked the Church of St. Jean Bosco in revenge, killing thirteen members of Aristide’s congregation in 1988. Two weeks later Aristide was expelled from the Salesian Order. The Roman Catholic Church ordered Aristide to Rome, but that resulted in one of the largest street demonstrations in Haitian

history. Tens of thousands of Haitians angrily blocking Aristide's departure by air.

Aristide had not lost his power, despite his expulsion from the order. After 1988 he continued to work with Port-au-Prince's desperately poor. He ran a shelter for children living on the street and opened a medical clinic.

### *A presidency interrupted*

When the United Nations (UN), the United States, and the Organization of American States finally persuaded the military men of Haiti to hold elections, Aristide was not an expected candidate. The character of the race for the presidency changed dramatically, however, when Aristide decided to run only a few months before the election in December 1990. His pledge for justice for victims of dictatorship and violence struck a chord among the poor, nearly all of whom would be voting for the first time in the nation's first free election. He also spoke harshly against the United States, both as a supporter of the Duvaliers and as an exploiter of the world.

Aristide soundly defeated his competition for the presidency. He won 67 percent of the popular vote, but his Lavalas (Avalanche) Party, which had had little time to organize, took only a relatively small percentage of the seats in the Haitian parliament. Before military men led by General Raoul Cedras overthrew Aristide on September 30, 1991, the new president had alarmed the commercial and old-line ruling classes of Haiti. Aristide had preached violence against *macoutes* and had gone after people suspected of being secret Duvalierists. His constructive accomplishments in office had been few, not all that surprising given that his power in parliament was small.

### *The free world rallies*

Aristide lived first in Venezuela and later in the United States. Soon after he was removed from power, the United States, the Organization of American States, and the UN embargoed, or stopped, Haitian exports and attempted to cease shipping oil and other imports. But those efforts were only partially successful. The Haitian people suffered from these economic policies much more than the military leaders.

All three groups then attempted to bargain a settlement between Aristide and Cedras. Several agreements fell apart when Aristide changed his mind. Others failed because the military leaders were endlessly suspicious of Aristide's real intentions.

In mid-1993 the administration of President Bill Clinton (1946–) and the UN persuaded Aristide and Cedras to meet near New York. They were to make an agreement that would return Aristide to the Haitian presidency for the final twenty-seven months of his single, nonrenewable term, and to provide an amnesty, or group pardon, for the military. But powerful people in Haiti refused to put the agreement in place. President Clinton sent more than twenty-three thousand U.S. troops to Haiti. The task of this military mission was to ensure the safe and successful return of Aristide to power. The goal was accomplished, and Aristide completed his term. On December 17, 1995, a Haitian presidential election took place, and Rene Preval was elected to succeed Aristide.

### *Again the president*

In 2000 Aristide's Lavalas Family Party won control of Haiti's Senate. On November 26 of that same year Aristide became a can-

didate for Haiti's national election. He faced four small-time candidates. The main opposition parties said they would not participate in the election, claiming Aristide wanted to return Haiti to a dictatorship. Many of his opponents thought that the parliamentary elections had not been fair, especially when Aristide won the presidential election. In his inaugural address, or first speech as new president, Aristide pledged to investigate the Senate elections. He also pledged to improve Haiti by, among other things, building more schools and bettering its healthcare system.

After the 2000 elections many foreign countries refused to give hundreds of millions of dollars in aid to Haiti until the disputes that arose as a result of the elections were settled. In December 2001 Aristide once again became the target of a group attempting to overthrow his government. But this time the attackers were defeated and Aristide remained in power. In 2002 Aristide promised to work at improving the political situation in Haiti.

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## ARISTOPHANES

**Born:** c. 448 B.C.E.

**Athens, Greece**

**Died:** c. 385 B.C.E.

**Athens, Greece**

*Greek writer*

Aristophanes was the greatest of the writers of the original Greek comedy, which flourished in Athens in the fifth century B.C.E., and the only one with any complete plays surviving. He wrote at least thirty-six comedies, of which eleven still exist.

### **His life**

Aristophanes was born in Athens between 450 and 445 B.C.E. into a wealthy family. He had an excellent education and was well versed in literature, especially the poetry of Homer (eighth century B.C.E.) and other great Athenian writers. His writings also suggest a strong knowledge of the latest philosophical theories.

All of Aristophanes' boyhood was spent while Athens was one of the two leading Greek political powers and the center of artistic and intellectual activity. Between the ages of seventeen and twenty-three Aristophanes began submitting his comedies for the annual Athens competition. His easy humor and good choice of words made most laugh and at least one politician take him to court. Whatever punishment resulted was mild enough to allow Aristophanes to continue his clever remarks at the leader's expense in his forthcoming comedies.

### **His plays**

Aristophanes' special touch with comedy is best explained with a look at the original Greek comedy. The original Greek comedy, Old Comedy, was a unique dramatic mixture of fantasy, satire (literary scorn of human foolishness), slapstick, and obvious sexuality. Aristophanes used beautiful rhyth-

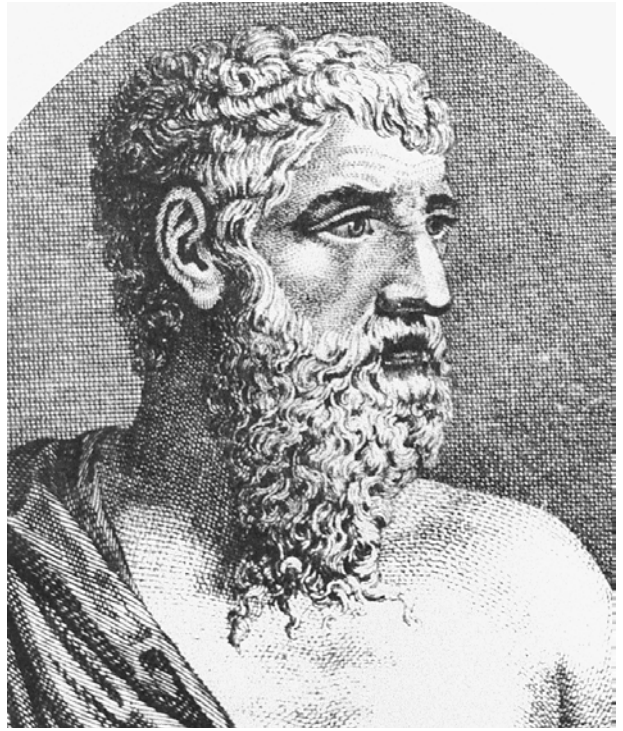
mic poetry as the format for all of his comedy. He had a way of shrinking the self-importance of people involved in politics, social life, and literature, but above all he used his unlimited amount of comic invention and high spirits.

In one such comedy, *The Knights*, Aristophanes represented the local Athenian leader as the greedy and dishonest slave of a dimwitted old gentleman (the Athenian people come to life). The slave is his master's favorite until displaced by an even more rude and nasty character, a sausage seller. At the time the featured politician was at the height of his popularity, yet Athenian tolerance even in wartime allowed Aristophanes first prize in the competition for comedies.

### ***Downfall and death***

All of Aristophanes' comedies kept pace with the political climate of Athens. In peacetime he wrote an emotionally charged and rude celebration of favorite things to do during peacetime. In times of Athenian plots and prewar conflict, he wrote his own conspiracies, such as *Lysistrata*, a depiction of the women of Greece banding together to stop the war by refusing to sleep with their husbands. With such a plot the play was inevitably rude but *Lysistrata* herself is one of his most attractive characters, and his sympathy for the difficulty of women in wartime makes the play a moving comment on the foolishness of war.

The Peloponnesian war (431–404 B.C.E.) between Athens and the Spartans began in 431 B.C.E. The leaders of Athens decided to wage war from the sea only. Meanwhile the Spartans burned the crops of Athens. Then the plague (outbreak of disease) hit Athens in



*Aristophanes.*

430 B.C.E., killing many. As Athens faced her worst enemy—starvation—Aristophanes' comedy continued to be crisp and cutting. *Frogs* received the first time honor of the request for a second performance.

The long war finally ended, when the Athenians were starved into surrender in the spring of 404 B.C.E. This sad defeat broke something in the spirit of the Athenians, and though they soon regained considerable importance both in politics and in intellectual matters, they were never quite the same again. In the sphere of comedy the no-holds-barred rudeness of the Old Comedy disappeared and was replaced by a more cautious, refined, and less spirited New Comedy.

The political climate was uneasy with the Spartans lording over Athens. Aristophanes had to hold his tongue in his plays, no longer poking fun at leaders and politics. He died nine years after *Lysistrata*, which still exists, and three years after his play *Plutus*. Dates of death range from 385–380 B.C.E. but it is certain that Aristophanes died in his beloved city, Athens.

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## ARISTOTLE

**Born:** c. 384 B.C.E.

Chalcidice, Greece

**Died:** c. 322 B.C.E.

Chalcis, Greece

*Greek philosopher and scientist*

**T**he Greek philosopher and scientist Aristotle created the scientific method, the process used for scientific investigation. His influence served as the basis for much of the science and philosophy of Hellenistic (Ancient Greek) and Roman times, and even affected science and philosophy thousands of years later.

### Early life

Aristotle was born in the small Greek town of Stagira (later Stagira) in the northern Greek district of Chalcidice. His father, Nicomachus, was a physician who had important social connections. Aristotle's interest in science was surely inspired by his father's work, although Aristotle did not display a particularly keen interest in medicine. The events of his early life are not clear. It is possible that his father served at the Macedonian court (the political leaders of Macedonia, an ancient empire) as physician to Amyntas II (died c. 370 B.C.E.) and that Aristotle spent part of his youth there.

At the age of seventeen Aristotle went to Athens, Greece, and joined Plato's (c. 428–c. 348 B.C.E.) circle at the Academy, a school for philosophers. There he remained for twenty years. Although his respect and admiration for Plato was always great, differences developed which ultimately caused a break in their relationship. Upon Plato's death Aristotle left for Assos in Mysia (in Asia Minor, today known as Turkey), where he and Xenocrates (c. 396–c. 314 B.C.E.) joined a small circle of Platonists (followers of Plato) who had already settled there under Hermias, the ruler of Atarneus. Aristotle married the niece of Hermias, a woman named Pythias, who was killed by the Persians some time thereafter.

In 342 B.C.E. Aristotle made his way to the court of Philip of Macedon (c. 382–c. 336 B.C.E.). There Aristotle became tutor to Alexander (c. 356–c. 323 B.C.E.), who would become master of the whole Persian Empire as Alexander the Great. Little information remains regarding the specific contents of Alexander's education at the hands of Aristotle, but it would be interesting to know what

political advice Aristotle gave to the young Alexander. The only indication of such advice is found in the fragment of a letter in which the philosopher tells Alexander that he ought to be the leader of the Greeks but the master of the barbarians (foreigners).

### ***Peripatetic School***

Aristotle returned to Athens around 335 B.C.E. Under the protection of Antipater (c. 397–c. 319 B.C.E.), Alexander's representative in Athens, Aristotle established a philosophical school of his own, the Lyceum, located near a shrine of Apollo Lyceus. Also known as the Peripatetic School, the school took its name from its colonnaded walk (a walk with a series of columns on either side). The lectures were divided into morning and afternoon sessions. The more difficult ones were given in the morning, and the easier and more popular ones were given in the afternoon. Aristotle himself led the school until the death of Alexander in 323 B.C.E., when he left Athens, fearing for his safety because of his close association with the Macedonians. He went to Chalcis, Greece, where he died the following year of intestinal problems. His will, preserved in the writings of Diogenes Laertius (third century C.E.), provided for his daughter, Pythias, and his son, Nicomachus, as well as for his slaves.

### ***His writings***

Aristotle produced a large number of writings, but few have survived. His earliest writings, consisting for the most part of dialogues (writings in the form of conversation), were produced under the influence of Plato and the Academy. Most of these are lost, although the titles are known from the writ-



*Aristotle.*

ings of Diogenes Laertius and from others. Among these important works are *Rhetoric*, *Eudemus (On the Soul)*, *On Philosophy*, *Alexander*, *Sophistes*, *On Justice*, *Wealth*, *On Prayer*, and *On Education*. They were a wide variety of works written for the public, and they dealt with popular philosophical themes. The dialogues of Plato were undoubtedly the inspiration for some of them, although the fall out between Plato and Aristotle reveals itself to a certain extent in these works, too.

A second group of writings is made up of collections of scientific and historical material, among the most important of which is the surviving fragment of the *Constitution of the Athenians*. This formed part of the large

collection of *Constitutions*, which Aristotle and his students collected and studied for the purpose of analyzing various political theories. The discovery of the *Constitution of the Athenians* in Egypt in 1890 shed new light on the nature of the Athenian democracy (a government of elected officials) of Aristotle's time. It also revealed the difference in quality between the historical and scientific works of Aristotle and those that followed.

Theophrastus (c. 372–c. 287 B.C.E.) had kept Aristotle's manuscripts after the master's death in 322 B.C.E. When Theophrastus died Aristotle's works were hidden away and not brought to light again until the beginning of the first century B.C.E. They were then taken to Rome and edited by Andronicus (first century B.C.E.). The texts that survive today come from Andronicus's revisions and probably do not represent works that Aristotle himself prepared for publication. From the time of his death until the rediscovery of these writings, Aristotle was best known for the works that today are known as the lost writings.

### ***Philosophical and scientific systems***

The writings that did survive, however, are sufficient to show the quality of Aristotle's achievement. The *Topics* and the *Analytics* deal with logic (the study of reasoning) and dialectic (a method of argument) and reveal Aristotle's contributions to the development of debate. His view of nature is set forth in the *Physics* and the *Metaphysics*, which mark the most serious difference between Aristotelianism and Platonism: that all investigation must begin with what the senses record and must move only from that point to thought. As a result of this process of intel-

lectualizing, God, who for Plato represents beauty and goodness, is for Aristotle the highest form of being and is completely lacking in materiality. Aristotle's God neither created nor controls the universe, although the universe is affected by this God. Man is the only creature capable of thought even remotely resembling that of God, so man's highest goal is to reason abstractly, like God, and he is more truly human to the extent that he achieves that goal.

Aristotle's work was often misunderstood in later times. The scientific and philosophical systems set forth in his writings are not conclusions that must be taken as the final answer, but rather experimental positions arrived at through careful observation and analysis. During the slow intellectual climate of the Roman Empire, which ruled over much of Europe for hundreds of years after Aristotle died, and the totally unscientific Christian Middle Ages (476–1453), Aristotle's views on nature and science were taken as a complete system. As a result, his influence was enormous but not for any reason that would have pleased him.

Aristotle shares with his master, Plato, the role of stimulating human thought. Plato had a more direct influence on the development of that great spiritual movement in late antiquity (years before the Middle Ages), and Aristotle had a greater effect on science. Antiquity produced no greater minds than those of Plato and Aristotle. The intellectual history of the West would be extremely different without them.

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## LOUIS ARMSTRONG

**Born:** August 4, 1901

New Orleans, Louisiana

**Died:** July 6, 1971

New York, New York

*African American jazz musician and singer*

Louis Armstrong was a famous jazz trumpet player and singer. He is regarded as one of the most important and influential musicians in the history of jazz music.

### Early life

Louis Daniel Armstrong was born in New Orleans on August 4, 1901. He was one of two children born to Willie Armstrong, a turpentine worker, and Mary Ann Armstrong, whose grandparents had been slaves. As a youngster, he sang on the streets with friends. His parents separated when he was five. He lived with his sister, mother, and grandmother in a rundown area of New Orleans known as “the Battlefield” because of the gambling, drunkenness, fighting, and shooting that frequently occurred there.

In 1913 Armstrong was arrested for firing a gun into the air on New Year’s Eve. He was sent to the Waif’s Home (a reform

school), where he took up the cornet (a trumpet-like instrument) and eventually played in a band. After his release he worked odd jobs and began performing with local groups. He was also befriended by Joe “King” Oliver, leader of the first great African American band to make records, who gave him trumpet lessons. Armstrong joined Oliver in Chicago, Illinois, in 1922, remaining there until 1924, when he went to New York City to play with Fletcher Henderson’s band.

### Jazz pioneer

When Armstrong returned to Chicago in the fall of 1925, he organized a band and began to record one of the greatest series in the history of jazz. These Hot Five and Hot Seven recordings show his skill and experimentation with the trumpet. In 1928 he started recording with drummer Zutty Singleton and pianist Earl Hines, the latter a musician whose skill matched Armstrong’s. Many of the resulting records are masterpieces of detailed construction and adventurous rhythms. During these years Armstrong was working with big bands in Chicago clubs and theaters. His vocals, featured on most records after 1925, are an extension of his trumpet playing in their rhythmic liveliness and are delivered in a unique throaty style. He was also the inventor of scat singing (the random use of nonsense syllables), which originated after he dropped his sheet music while recording a song and could not remember the lyrics.

By 1929 Armstrong was in New York City leading a nightclub band. Appearing in the theatrical revue *Hot Chocolates*, he sang “Fats” Waller’s (1904–1943) “Ain’t Misbehavin’,” Armstrong’s first popular song hit. From this period Armstrong performed mainly popular





Louis Armstrong.

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song material, which presented a new challenge. Some notable performances resulted. His trumpet playing reached a peak around 1933. His style then became simpler, replacing the experimentation of his earlier years with a more mature approach that used every note to its greatest advantage. He rerecorded some of his earlier songs with great results.

#### Later years

Armstrong continued to front big bands, often of lesser quality, until 1947, when the big-band era ended. He returned to leading a small group that, though it included first-class musicians at first, became a mere back-

ground for his talents over the years. During the 1930s Armstrong had achieved international fame, first touring Europe as a soloist and singer in 1932. After World War II (1939–45) and his 1948 trip to France, he became a constant world traveller. He journeyed through Europe, Africa, Japan, Australia, and South America. He also appeared in numerous films, the best of which was a documentary titled *Satchmo the Great* (1957).

The public had come to think of Louis Armstrong as a vaudeville entertainer (a light, often comic performer) in his later years—a fact reflected in much of his recorded output. But there were still occasions when he produced well-crafted, brilliant music. He died in New York City on July 6, 1971.

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## NEIL ARMSTRONG

**Born:** August 5, 1930

**Wapakoneta, Ohio**

*American astronaut*

The American astronaut Neil Armstrong was the first person to walk on the moon. In one of the most famous remarks of the twentieth century, he called his first movements on the moon “one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind.”

### *Childhood interests*

Neil Alden Armstrong was born on August 5, 1930, near Wapakoneta, Ohio. He was the eldest of three children of Stephen and Viola Engel Armstrong. Airplanes drew his interest from the age of six, when he took his first airplane ride. He began taking flying lessons at age fourteen, and on his sixteenth birthday he was issued a pilot's license. A serious pilot even at that age, Armstrong built a small wind tunnel (a tunnel through which air is forced at controlled speeds to study the effects of its flow) in the basement of his home. He also performed experiments using the model planes he had made. Through such activities he was preparing for what would be a distinguished career in aeronautics, or the design, construction, and navigation of aircrafts.

Armstrong was also interested in outer space at a young age. His fascination was fueled by a neighbor who owned a powerful telescope. Armstrong was thrilled with the views of the stars, the Moon, and the planets he saw through this device.

### *Years of training*

Armstrong entered Indiana's Purdue University in 1947 with a U.S. Navy scholarship. After two years of study he was called to active duty with the navy and won his jet

pilot wings at Pensacola Naval Air Station in Florida. At twenty he was the youngest pilot in his squadron. He flew seventy-eight combat missions during the Korean War, a civil war from 1950 to 1953 between North and South Korea in which China fought on the Communist North Korean side and the United States fought to assist South Korea.

After the war Armstrong returned to Purdue and completed a degree in aeronautical engineering in 1955. He immediately accepted a job with the Lewis Flight Propulsion Laboratory of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics (NACA) in Cleveland, Ohio. A year later he married Janet Shearon.

### *Aeronautical career*

Shortly afterward Armstrong transferred to the NACA High Speed Flight Station at Edwards Air Force Base in California. Here he became a skilled test pilot and flew the early models of such jet aircraft as the F-100, F-101, F-102, F-104, F-5D, and B-47. He was also a pilot of the X-1B rocket plane, a later version of the first plane that broke through the sound barrier (the dragging effect of air on a plane as it approaches the speed of sound).

Armstrong was selected as one of the first three NACA pilots to fly the X-15 rocket-engine plane. He made seven flights in this plane, which was a kind of early model for future spacecraft. Once he set a record altitude of 207,500 feet and a speed of 3,989 miles per hour. Armstrong also received an invitation from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's (NASA) American space-flight program, but he showed little enthusiasm for becoming an



Neil Armstrong.

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astronaut. His real love was flying planes. Largely because of his experience with the X-15, he was selected as a pilot of the *Dynasoar*, an experimental craft that could leave the atmosphere, orbit earth, reenter the atmosphere, and land like a conventional airplane.

## ***Becoming an astronaut***

In 1962 Armstrong decided to become an astronaut and applied for NASA selection and training. In September 1962 he became America's first nonmilitary astronaut. His first flight assignment as an astronaut was as a backup, or alternate, pilot for Gordon Cooper of the *Gemini 5* mission. (Space programs cre-

ated around a certain spacecraft type are given names such as *Gemini* or *Apollo*, while individual missions within these programs are numbered, such as *Gemini 5*.)

Armstrong continued his specialized training on the *Gemini* spacecraft and was selected as the command pilot for the *Gemini 8* mission. With copilot David Scott he was launched from Cape Kennedy (now Cape Canaveral), Florida, on March 16, 1966. The *Gemini 8* achieved orbit and docked as planned with another orbiting vehicle, but shortly afterward the *Gemini 8* went out of control. Armstrong detached his craft, corrected the problem, and brought *Gemini 8* down in the Pacific Ocean only 1.1 nautical miles from the planned landing point.

Armstrong's cool and professional conduct made a strong impression on his superiors as the training for the *Apollo* program was developing. During a routine training flight on the lunar (moon) landing research vehicle (a training device that permits astronauts to maneuver a craft in a flight environment similar to that in landing on the Moon), Armstrong's craft went out of control. He ejected (forced out) himself and landed by parachute only yards away from the training vehicle, which had crashed in flames. With his usual controlled emotions, he walked away and calmly made his report.

## ***Apollo 11 mission***

In January 1969 Armstrong was selected as commander for *Apollo 11*, the first lunar landing mission. On July 16 at 9:32 A.M. Eastern Daylight Time (EDT), Armstrong, with astronauts Michael Collins and Edwin Aldrin, lifted off from the Kennedy Space Center in Florida.

*Apollo 11* passed into the gravitational influence (pull of gravity) of the moon on July 18 and circled the moon twice. Armstrong and Aldrin entered a lunar module (a small spacecraft) named the *Eagle*, which then disconnected from the larger command and service module named *Columbia*. As they descended toward the lunar surface, their computer became overloaded, but under instructions from the mission control center in Houston, Texas, Armstrong managed to land the module. At 4:17:40 P.M. EDT on July 20, a major portion of the Earth's population was listening to Armstrong's radio transmission reporting that the *Eagle* had landed. At 10:56 P.M. he set foot on the moon, saying, "That's one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind."

Armstrong and Aldrin spent nearly two and a half hours walking on the moon. The astronauts set up various scientific instruments on the surface and left behind a plaque (metal plate) reading, "Here men from the planet Earth first set foot upon the Moon. We came in peace for all mankind." Armstrong and Aldrin then returned to the *Eagle* and launched themselves to meet up again with Collins, who had been orbiting in the *Columbia* spacecraft. On July 24 *Columbia* returned to earth.

### **Career after NASA**

*Apollo 11* was Armstrong's final space mission. He joined NASA's Office of Advanced Research and Technology, where one of his main activities was to promote research into controlling high-performance aircraft by computer. In 1971 he began working at the University of Cincinnati in Ohio, where he spent seven years as a professor of aerospace engineering.

Armstrong did continue some government work. In 1984 he was named to the

National Commission on Space, which completed a report outlining an ambitious future for U.S. space programs. He was also a leader of a government commission to investigate the disastrous explosion of the *Challenger* space shuttle that occurred in January 1986.

Armstrong has worked for several corporations since his astronaut days, including a position as chairman of AIL Systems, Inc., an aerospace electronics manufacturer. In 1999 he was honored at a ceremony at the National Air and Space Museum at the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D.C., where he received the Langley Medal in honor of the thirtieth anniversary of the *Apollo 11* mission. Armstrong also makes occasional public appearances at the Neil Armstrong Air & Space Museum in his hometown of Wapakoneta, Ohio.

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## BENEDICT ARNOLD

**Born:** January 14, 1741

**Norwich, Connecticut**

**Died:** June 14, 1801

**London, England**

*American military general*

Although he fought with skill and courage in many campaigns during the American Revolution (1775–83), General Benedict Arnold is best known as the man who betrayed his country.

### *Youth and family*

Benedict Arnold was born on January 14, 1741, in Norwich, Connecticut. He was one of only two of his mother's eleven children to survive into adulthood. His mother had been a prosperous widow before marrying Arnold's father, a merchant. However, Arnold's father did not manage the family's money well, and they were financially ruined when Arnold was thirteen. He was forced to leave school and go to work learning to be an apothecary, a position similar to that of a modern-day pharmacist.

As a young man, Arnold was a risk-taker who looked for outlets for his energetic and impulsive (taking action before thinking things through) nature. He volunteered for the French and Indian War (1754–63), a war fought between France and England in America for control of the colonial lands, but at eighteen he deserted in order to be with his mother, who was dying. In the 1760s he traded with Canada and the West Indies as a merchant and a sea captain. He took his hot-headed nature to sea with him, fighting at least two duels while on trading voyages. He was a financial success as a trader, but he was also accused of smuggling. In 1767 he married Margaret Mansfield, daughter of a government official in New Haven, Connecticut.

### *Joining the Revolution*

News of the battles of Lexington and Concord (April 17, 1775) in Massachusetts,

the first battles of the Revolution, reached Arnold in April 1775. Upon hearing of these events he set out as the head of a company of Connecticut militia for Cambridge, Massachusetts, where George Washington (1732–1799) was gathering an army to fight the British forces. Although he marched to Massachusetts without military orders to do so, Arnold was soon given an official mission. His first military engagement was the attack the next month on Fort Ticonderoga in northeastern New York, where the British had a supply of artillery, a type of large-caliber weaponry that includes cannons. The attack operation was successful, but Arnold got little of the credit for this success. Credit went mostly to Ethan Allen (1738–1789) and the troops Allen commanded, known as the Green Mountain Boys.

Arnold's second assignment was with an expedition against Canada. Leaving Cambridge on September 19, 1775, he led his troops north through Maine into Canada. By land and water and in snow and storms, he reached Quebec, Canada, in early November. There he was joined by another troop, led by General Richard Montgomery, which had come by way of Lake Champlain and Montreal, Canada. Together the two forces assaulted Quebec on December 31, but the attack failed; Montgomery lost his life and Arnold was left with a severe leg wound. Arnold next went to Lake Champlain to prevent the British from using it as a means of traveling from Canada to New York. He lost two naval battles on the lake in October 1776, but he had effectively delayed the British in their southward movement. In the same month Congress made Arnold a brigadier general (an army officer above a colonel).

### *Honor and accusations*

The winter of 1776–77 was an unhappy one for Arnold. His hot temper, impulsiveness, and impatience had earned him many enemies who now made all sorts of charges against him. He was accused of misconduct (poor behavior) on the march through Maine, of incompetence (failure to successfully carry out a mission) on Lake Champlain, and more. Worse yet, in February 1777 Congress promoted five other brigadier generals, all Arnold's juniors, to the rank of major general (an army officer who is above a brigadier general). Only Washington's pleas kept Arnold from resigning from the army. Fortunately, the coming of spring gave him the chance for a successful operation. While visiting his home in New Haven, Arnold heard of a British attack on American supply stations in Danbury, Connecticut. He rounded up the local militia and raced to stop the enemy. Although he got there too late to prevent the destruction of the supplies, he did force the British to flee. A grateful Congress promoted him to major general on May 2, but he was still below the other five in rank. Meanwhile, he faced a formal charge of stealing goods and property from Montreal merchants during the Canadian campaign. He was cleared of the charge, but his anger at the accusation moved him to resign from the army in July 1777.

Once again Washington pleaded with him—this time to rejoin the army. Washington needed him for service in northern New York to block a bold British plan. The British hoped to split New England from the other colonies by sending General John Burgoyne from Fort Ticonderoga down the Hudson River to New York City. Burgoyne not only



*Benedict Arnold.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

failed in his mission but also lost his whole army, which he surrendered at Saratoga, New York, in October 1777. Arnold played a major role in the two battles that led to the British defeat. Burgoyne himself said of Arnold that "it was his doing." Congress rewarded Arnold by restoring his position in rank above the other major generals.

Arnold's next assignment was command of the military post at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, which the British had left in June 1778. In April 1779 he married Margaret Shippen, the daughter of a wealthy Philadelphian. (His first wife had died in 1775.) Moving in wealthy social circles, Arnold lived expen-

sively, spent beyond his means, and soon found himself heavily in debt. At the same time he was being charged with a number of offenses connected to using his military office for private gain. He demanded a trial in Congress, which began in May 1779. The verdict, or decision, handed down in December found him not guilty of most charges but ordered Washington to reprimand him. The general did this, but mildly, in April 1780.

### ***End as a traitor***

By this time Arnold had already started on the road to treason. Personally hurt by Congress's treatment and badly in need of money, he had begun to pass information on American troop movements and strength of units to the British in exchange for money as early as May or June of 1779. Early in the summer of 1780, he thought up a plan to turn over the important post at West Point, New York, to the English for the sum of ten thousand pounds. He persuaded Washington to place him in command there in order to carry out this scheme. However, Arnold's plan fell through when his contact, the British spy Major John André (1750–1780), was captured on September 21, 1780, with documents that showed Arnold was a traitor. André was hanged and Arnold fled to the British lines.

Arnold spent the rest of the war in a British uniform fighting his own countrymen. He went to London in 1781 and died there twenty years later on June 14, 1801, forgotten in England and despised in America. To this day, calling someone a "Benedict Arnold" in America is a way of saying that person has betrayed his or her side.

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## MARY KAY ASH

**Born:** c. 1916

**Hot Wells, Texas**

**Died:** November 22, 2001

**Dallas, Texas**

*American businesswoman*

Mary Kay Ash used her training in direct sales to create her own multimillion-dollar cosmetics firm and provide women with the opportunity for advancement.

### ***Early years***

Mary Kay Wagner Ash believed that "a lady never reveals her age," and therefore the exact year of her birth is unknown. It is estimated to be 1916. She was born to Edward and Lula Wagner in Hot Wells, Texas, the youngest of four children. Her mother, who had studied to be a nurse, worked long hours managing a restaurant. When Mary Kay was two or three, her father was ill with tuberculo-

sis (an infection of the lungs). As a result, it was her responsibility to clean, cook, and care for her father while her mother was at work. She excelled in school, but her family could not afford to send her to college. She married at age seventeen and eventually had three children.

### ***Working mother***

During a time when few married women with families worked outside the home, Ash became an employee of Stanley Home Products in Houston, Texas. She conducted demonstration “parties” at which she sold company products, mostly to homemakers like herself. Energetic and a quick learner, Ash rose at Stanley to unit manager, a post she held from 1938 to 1952. She also spent a year studying at the University of Houston to follow her dream of becoming a doctor, but she gave it up and returned to sales work.

After Ash’s marriage ended in 1952, she took a sales job at World Gift Company in Dallas, Texas. She began to develop her theory of marketing and sales, which included offering sales incentives (something that spurs someone to action) to the customer as well as the sales force. Ash was intelligent and hardworking, but, unlike men, women were given hardly any opportunities for advancement at the time. Tired of being passed over for promotions in favor of the men she had trained, she quit. She planned to write a book about her experiences in the work force.

### ***Starts her own company***

Instead, in 1963, Ash founded her own company (with an investment of five thousand dollars) to sell a skin cream to which she had purchased the manufacturing rights. She named her company “Beauty by Mary



Mary Kay Ash.

*Reproduced by permission of Halcyon Associates, Inc.*

Kay.” Ash was determined to offer career opportunities in her company to any woman who had the energy and creativity required to sell Mary Kay cosmetics. Before long she had a force of female sales representatives who were eager to prove themselves. Ash’s second husband had died in 1963, a month before her company was established. Her oldest son helped guide her through the start-up phase of her company. Three years later she married Melville J. Ash, who worked in the wholesale gift business.

Believing it was important to reward hard workers, Ash gave away vacations, jewelry, and pink Cadillacs to her top perform-



ers. (By 1994 she had given away seven thousand cars valued at \$100 million.) With goals such as these to shoot for, her salespeople made the company a huge success. Within two years sales neared \$1 million. The company's growth continued, and new products were added. Every year since 1992 Mary Kay Cosmetics made *Fortune* magazine's list of five hundred largest companies. In addition the company was listed in a book entitled *The 100 Best Companies to Work for in America*. It now employs over 475 thousand people in over twenty-five countries.

### Later years

Ash published her life story, *Mary Kay*, in 1981. It sold over a million copies, and she went on to write *Mary Kay on People Management* (1984) and *Mary Kay—You Can Have It All* (1995). In 1987 Ash became chairman *emeritus* of her company (meaning that she would hold the title of chairman even in her retirement). She helped raise money for cancer research after her third husband died of the disease. In 1993 she was honored with the dedication of the Mary Kay Ash Center for Cancer Immunotherapy Research at St. Paul Medical Center in Dallas. In 1996 the Mary Kay Ash Charitable Foundation was started to research cancers that mainly affect women.

Mary Kay Ash's health declined after she suffered a stroke in 1996. She died at her Dallas home on November 22, 2001. She was a tough businessperson with a thorough knowledge of marketing and sales. Through her belief in women's abilities and her willingness to give them a chance, she made the dream of a successful career a reality for hundreds of thousands of women worldwide.

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## ARTHUR ASHE

**Born:** July 10, 1943

**Richmond, Virginia**

**Died:** February 6, 1993

**New York, New York**

*African American tennis player and activist*

Arthur Ashe was the first African American player to compete in the international sport of tennis at the highest level of the game. After an early retirement from sports due to heart surgery, Ashe used his sportsman profile and legendary poise to promote human rights, education, and public health.

### Early years

Arthur Robert Ashe Jr. was born on July 10, 1943, in Richmond, Virginia. He spent most of his early years with his mother, Mattie Cordell Cunningham Ashe, who taught him to read at age five. She died the next year of heart disease. Ashe's father, Arthur Ashe Sr., worked as a caretaker for a park named Brook Field in suburban North Richmond. Young Arthur lived on the grounds with four tennis courts, a pool, and three baseball diamonds. This was the key to his development

as a future star athlete. His early nickname was “Skinny” or “Bones,” but he grew up to be six feet one inch with a lean build.

Ashe began playing tennis at age six. He received instruction from R. Walter “Whirlwind” Johnson, an African American doctor from Lynchburg, Virginia, who opened his home in the summers to tennis prospects, including the great Althea Gibson (1927–). Johnson used military-style methods to teach tennis skills and to stress his special code of sportsmanship, which included respect, sharp appearance, and “no cheating at any time.”

### *An amateur tennis player*

Ashe attended Richmond City Public Schools and received a diploma from Maggie L. Walker High School in 1961. After success as a junior player in the American Tennis Association (ATA), he was the first African American junior to receive a U.S. Lawn Tennis Association (USLTA) national ranking. When he won the National Interscholastics in 1960, it was the first USLTA national title won by an African American in the South. The University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) awarded him a full scholarship.

In 1963 Ashe became the first African American player to win the U.S. Men’s Hard-court championships, and the first to be named to a U.S. Junior Davis Cup (an international men’s tournament) team. He became the National College Athletic Association (NCAA) singles and doubles champion, leading UCLA to the NCAA title in 1965. After graduating with a bachelor’s degree in business administration, Ashe served in the army for two years, during which he was assigned time for tennis competitions. In 1968 Ashe created a tennis program for U.S. inner cities.



Arthur Ashe.

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This was the beginning of today’s U.S. Tennis Association/National Junior Tennis League program, with five hundred chapters running programs for 150 thousand kids.

### *As professional tennis player*

Two events changed Ashe’s life in the late 1960s. The first was the protest by African American athletes at the 1968 Olympic Games in Mexico City, Mexico, in opposition to separation based on race, or apartheid, in the Republic of South Africa. The second event was in tennis. He was the USLTA amateur champion and won the first U.S. Open Tennis Championship at Forest Hills. The USLTA

ranked him co-number one (with Rod Laver). He became a top money-winner after turning professional in 1969. In 1972 he helped found the Association of Tennis Professionals (ATP).

In 1973 Ashe became the first African American to reach the South African Open finals held in Johannesburg, South Africa, and he was the doubles winner with Tom Okker of the Netherlands. Black South Africans gave Ashe the name “Sipho,” which means “a gift from God” in Zulu. The year 1975 was Ashe’s best and most consistent season. He was the first and only African American player to win the men’s singles title at Wimbledon, beating the defending champion, Jimmy Connors. Ashe was ranked number one in the world and was named ATP Player of the Year.

In 1977 Ashe married Jeanne Moutousamy, a professional photographer and graphic artist. The couple had a daughter, Camera Elizabeth. Ashe almost defeated John McEnroe (1959–) in the Masters final in New York in January 1979, and was a semi-finalist at Wimbledon that summer before a heart attack soon after the tournament ended his career. After heart surgery Ashe announced his retirement from competitive tennis.

### ***As international role model***

After retiring from competition, Ashe served as captain of the U.S. Davis Cup team and led it to consecutive victories (1981–82). Ashe received media attention for his Davis Cup campaigns, his protests against apartheid in South Africa, and his call for higher educational standards for all athletes. But he spent most of his time dealing quietly with the “real world” through public speaking, teaching, writing, business, and public service. Ashe helped develop: the ABC Cities program,

combining tennis and academics; the Safe Passage Foundation for poor children, which includes tennis training; the Athletes Career Connection; the Black Tennis & Sports Foundation, to assist minority athletes; and 15-Love, a substance abuse program.

After heart surgery in 1983 Ashe became national campaign chairman for the American Heart Association and the only nonmedical member of the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Advisory Council. In the late 1970s he became an adviser to Aetna Life & Casualty Company. He was made a board member in 1982. He represented minority concerns and, later, the causes of the sick.

Ashe was elected to the UCLA Sports Hall of Fame, the Virginia Sports Hall of Fame, and the Eastern Tennis Association Hall of Fame. He became the first person named to the U.S. Professional Tennis Association Hall of Fame. He spent six years and \$300,000 of his own money to write *A Hard Road to Glory: A History of the African-American Athlete*, a three-volume work published in 1988. Ashe won an Emmy Award for writing a television version of his work. He also worked as a broadcaster at tennis matches, sports consultant at tennis clinics, and columnist for the *Washington Post*.

### ***Later years***

After brain surgery in 1988 came the discovery that Ashe had been infected with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), the virus that causes acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS, a fatal disease that attacks the body’s immune system). Doctors traced the infection back to a blood transfusion he received after his second heart operation in 1983. After going public with the news in 1992, Ashe established the Arthur

Ashe Foundation for the Defeat of AIDS to provide treatment to AIDS patients and to promote AIDS research throughout the world. He rallied professional tennis to help raise funds and to increase public awareness of the disease. He addressed the General Assembly of the United Nations (UN) on World AIDS Day, December 1, 1992.

Arthur Ashe died on February 6, 1993, in New York City. As Ashe's body lay in state at the governor's mansion in Virginia, mourners paid their respects at a memorial service held in New York City and at the funeral at the Ashe Athletic Center in Richmond. In 1996 Ashe's hometown of Richmond announced plans to erect a statue in his honor. The following year a new stadium at the National Tennis Center in Flushing Meadows, New York, was named after him.

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## ISAAC ASIMOV

**Born:** January 2, 1920

**Petrovichi, Russia, Soviet Union**

**Died:** April 6, 1992

**New York, New York**

*Russian-born American writer*

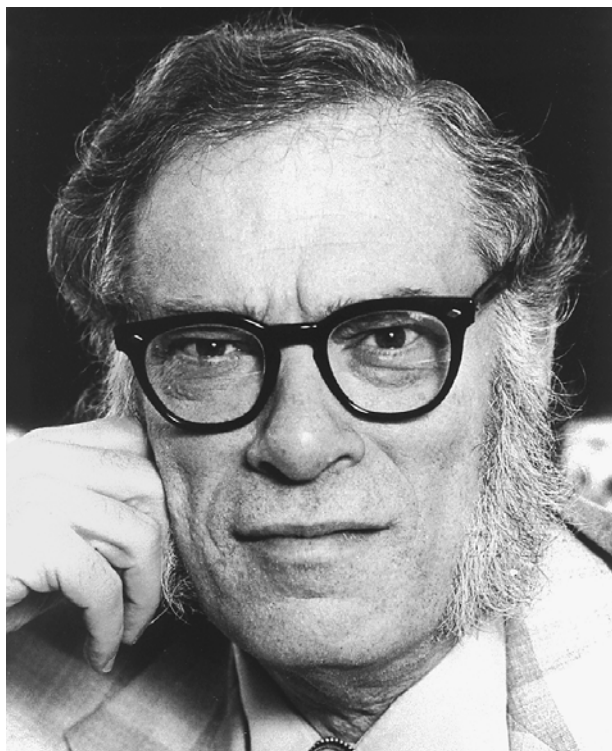
The author of nearly five hundred books, Isaac Asimov was one of the finest writers of science fiction in the twentieth century. Many, however, believe Asimov's greatest talent was for, as he called it, "translating" science, making it understandable and interesting for the average reader.

### **Early life**

Isaac Asimov was born on January 2, 1920, in Petrovichi, Russia, then part of the Smolensk district in the Soviet Union. He was the first of three children of Juda and Anna Rachel Asimov. Although his father made a good living, changing political conditions led the family to leave for the United States in 1923. The Asimovs settled in Brooklyn, New York, where they owned and operated a candy store. Asimov was an excellent student who skipped several grades. In 1934 he published his first story in a high school newspaper. A year later he entered Seth Low Junior College, an undergraduate college of Columbia University. In 1936 he transferred to the main campus and changed his major from biology to chemistry. During the next two years Asimov's interest in history grew, and he read numerous books on the subject. He also read science fiction magazines and wrote stories. Asimov graduated from Columbia University with a bachelor's degree in chemistry in 1939.

### **Early influences**

Asimov's interest in science fiction had begun as a boy when he noticed several of the early science fiction magazines for sale on the newsstand in his family's candy store. His father refused to let him read them. But



Isaac Asimov.

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when a new magazine appeared on the scene called *Science Wonder Stories*, Asimov convinced his father that it was a serious journal of science, and as a result he was allowed to read it. Asimov quickly became a devoted fan of science fiction. He wrote letters to the editors, commenting on stories that had appeared in the magazine, and tried writing stories of his own.

In 1937, at the age of seventeen, he began a story entitled "Cosmic Corkscrew." By the time Asimov finished the story in June 1938, *Astounding Stories* had become *Astounding Science Fiction*. Its editor was John W. Campbell, who would go on to influence

the work of some of the most famous authors of modern science fiction, including Arthur C. Clarke (1917–), Poul Anderson (1926–2001), L. Sprague de Camp (1907–2000), and Theodore Sturgeon (1918–1985). Since Campbell was also one of the best-known science fiction writers of the time, Asimov was shocked by his father's suggestion that he submit his story to the editor in person. But mailing the story would have cost twelve cents while subway fare, round trip, was only ten cents. To save the two cents, he agreed to make the trip to the magazine's office, expecting to leave the story with a secretary.

Campbell, however, had invited many young writers to discuss their work with him. When Asimov arrived he was shown into the editor's office. Campbell talked with him for over an hour and agreed to read the story. Two days later Asimov received it back in the mail. It had been rejected, but Campbell offered suggestions for improvement and encouraged the young man to keep trying. This began a pattern that was to continue for several years, with Campbell guiding Asimov through his beginnings as a science fiction writer. His first professionally published story, "Marooned off Vesta," appeared in *Amazing Stories* in 1939.

### *Growing fame*

During the 1940s Asimov earned a master's degree and a doctorate, served during World War II (1939–45) as a chemist at the Naval Air Experimental Station in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and became an instructor at Boston University School of Medicine. He also came to be considered one of the three greatest writers of science fiction in the 1940s (along with Robert

Heinlein and A. E. Van Vogt), and his popularity continued afterward. Stories such as “Nightfall” and “The Bicentennial Man,” and novels such as *The Gods Themselves* and *Foundation’s Edge*, received numerous honors and are recognized as among the best science fiction ever written.

Asimov’s books about robots—most notably *I, Robot*, *The Caves of Steel*, and *The Naked Sun*—won respect for science fiction by using elements of style found in other types of books, such as mystery and detective stories. He introduced the “Three Laws of Robotics”: “1. A robot may not injure a human being or, through inaction, allow a human being to come to harm. 2. A robot must obey the orders given it by human beings except where such orders would conflict with the First Law. 3. A robot must protect its own existence as long as such protection does not conflict with the First or Second Laws.” Asimov said that he used these ideas as the basis for “over two dozen short stories and three novels . . . about robots.” The three laws became so popular, and seemed so sensible, that many people believed real robots would eventually be designed according to Asimov’s basic principles.

Also notable among Asimov’s science fiction works is the “Foundation” series. This group of short stories, published in magazines in the 1940s and then collected and reprinted in the early 1950s, was written as a “future history,” a story being told in a society of the future which relates events of that society’s history. *Foundation*, *Foundation and Empire*, and *Second Foundation* were enormously popular among science fiction fans. In 1966 the World Science Fiction Convention honored them with a special Hugo

Award as the best all-time science fiction series. Even many years after the original publication, Asimov’s future history series remained popular—in the 1980s, forty years after he began the series, Asimov added a new volume, *Foundation’s Edge*.

### **Branching out**

Asimov’s first works of fiction written mainly for a younger audience were his “Lucky Starr” novels. In 1951, at the suggestion of his editor, he began working on a series of science-fiction stories that could easily be adapted for television. “Television was here; that was clear,” he said in his autobiography (the story of his life), *In Memory Yet Green*. “Why not take advantage of it, then?” *David Starr: Space Ranger* was the first of six volumes of stories involving David ‘Lucky’ Starr, agent of the outer space law enforcement agency called the Council of Science. The stories, however, were never made for television.

Asimov’s first nonfiction book was a medical text entitled *Biochemistry and Human Metabolism*. Begun in 1950 it was written with two of his coworkers at the Boston University School of Medicine. His many books on science, explaining everything from how nuclear weapons work to the theory of numbers, take complicated information and turn it into readable, interesting writing. Asimov also loved his work as a teacher and discovered that he was an entertaining public speaker. Before his death in 1992, Asimov commented, “I’m on fire to explain, and happiest when it’s something reasonably intricate [complicated] which I can make clear step by step. It’s the easiest way I can clarify [explain] things in my own mind.”

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## FRED ASTAIRE

**Born:** May 10, 1899

**Omaha, Nebraska**

**Died:** June 22, 1987

**Los Angeles, California**

*American actor, dancer, and choreographer*

**F**red Astaire was a famous dancer and choreographer (one who creates and arranges dance performances) who worked in vaudeville (traveling variety entertainment acts), musical comedy, television, radio, and Hollywood musicals.

**Early years**

Fred Astaire was born Frederick Austerlitz on May 10, 1899, in Omaha, Nebraska. His parents, Frederic E. and Ann Gelius Austerlitz, enrolled him in dancing school at age four to join his older sister Adele. The two Austerlitz children proved extraordinarily talented and the family moved to New York, where the children continued their

training in singing, dancing, and acting. In 1905 Fred and Adele began performing in vaudeville. By 1917 they had changed their last name to Astaire and began performing in musicals. They appeared in successful productions on Broadway and in London, England, including the musical comedies *Lady, Be Good* in 1924, *Funny Face* in 1927, and a revue titled *The Band Wagon* in 1931.

When Adele retired from show business in 1932 to marry, Astaire sought to reshape his career. He took the featured role in the musical *Gay Divorce*. This show proved Astaire could succeed without his sister and helped establish the pattern of most of his film musicals: it was a light comedy, built around a love story for Astaire and his partner that was amusing, but basically serious—and featuring some great dancing, including routines Astaire was beginning to develop himself.

**Astaire goes to Hollywood**

In 1933 Astaire married Phyllis Livingston Potter and shortly afterward went to Hollywood. He had a featured part in *Flying Down to Rio* (1933). The film was a hit, and it was obvious that Astaire was a major factor in the success. *The Gay Divorcee* (1934), a film version of *Gay Divorce*, was the first of Astaire's major pictures with Ginger Rogers (1911–1995) and an even bigger hit. With seven more films in the 1930s (the most popular of which was *Top Hat* in 1935), Astaire and Rogers became one of the legendary partnerships in the history of dance, featuring high spirits, bubbling comedy, and romantic chemistry. By the end of the 1930s the profits from the Astaire-Rogers films were beginning to decline. Over the next few years

Astaire made nine films at four different studios and continued to create splendid dances, appearing with a variety of partners.

### ***Other ventures***

In 1946 Astaire retired from motion pictures to create a chain of successful dancing schools. In 1947 he returned to movies to make the highly profitable *Easter Parade* at Metro Goldwyn Mayer (MGM). Nine more musicals followed. Astaire's success was marred in 1954, however, when his beloved wife died from cancer.

By the mid-1950s the era of the Hollywood musical was coming to an end, and Astaire moved into other fields. On television he produced four award-winning musical specials with Barrie Chase as his partner. He also tried his hand at straight acting roles with considerable success in eight films between 1959 and 1982. Over the years he played a number of characters on television in dramatic specials and series. In 1980, as he entered his eighties, Astaire married Robyn Smith, a successful jockey in her mid-thirties. He died seven years later.

Ginger Rogers, Astaire's longtime dance partner, passed away in 1995. Rogers is often quoted as having said, "I did everything Fred did, only backwards and in high heels." Their partnership lasted sixteen years, from 1933 to 1949.

### ***Looking back***

Fred Astaire appeared in 212 musical numbers, of which 133 contain fully developed dance routines, many of which are of great artistic value. And, because he worked mainly in film, the vast majority of Astaire's



*Fred Astaire.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

works are preserved in their original form. Astaire's dances are a blend of tap and ballroom dancing with bits from other dance forms thrown in. What holds everything together is Astaire's class, wit, and apparent ease of execution.

Astaire spent weeks working out his choreography. He also created an approach to filming dance that was often copied in Hollywood musicals: both camerawork and editing are used to support the flow of the dancing, not to overshadow it. Although his shyness and self-doubt could make him difficult to work with, Astaire was an efficient planner and worker. His courtesy, profes-



sionalism, and struggle for improvement earned him the admiration of his coworkers.

In January 1997, with Robyn Astaire's blessing, Astaire's image returned to television through special effects editing—Dirt Devil inserted its vacuum cleaners into dance scenes from Astaire's films for three of its commercials. The press criticized the commercials. The general feeling was that replacing Ginger Rogers with a vacuum cleaner was in poor taste.

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## JOHN JACOB ASTOR

**Born:** July 17, 1763

**Waldorf, Germany**

**Died:** March 29, 1848

**New York, New York**

*German-born American businessman  
and industrialist*

An American fur trader and businessman, John Astor used his profits from fur trading to invest in a wide range of business enterprises. By the time of his death he was the richest man in America.

### **Childhood poverty**

John Jacob Astor was born in Waldorf, near Heidelberg, Germany, on July 17, 1763. He was named after his father Jacob Astor, a poor but happy butcher. His mother, Maria Magdalena Vorfelder, learned to be very careful with the little money the family had (a quality she passed on to her son). She died when Astor was three years old. Despite the family's poverty, Astor received a good education from the local schoolmaster. When he reached the age of fourteen he went to work as an assistant to his father. He did this for two years before striking out on his own in 1779. Astor joined one of his brothers in London, England, where he learned to speak English and worked to earn money to pay his way to America.

In 1783, after the peace treaty ending the American Revolution (1775–83; when the American colonies fought for independence from Great Britain) had been signed, Astor sailed for the United States to join another brother who had gone there earlier. The ship carrying Astor to America became stuck in ice before completing its voyage and remained there for two months. During this time, Astor met a German man on the ship who told him how much money there was to be made in fur trading. Astor finally landed at Baltimore, Maryland, in March 1784.

### **Success in fur trading**

Astor soon joined his brother in New York and began to demonstrate his talent for business. He worked for several furriers and began buying furs on his own. In 1784 and 1785 Astor made trips to western New York to buy furs for his employers, purchasing some for himself at the same time. He acquired

enough furs to make a trip to England profitable. In London he established connections with a well-known trading house, signed an agreement to act as the New York agent for a musical instrument firm, and used his profits from the furs to buy merchandise to use for trade with the Native Americans. Not yet twenty-two, he had already proved himself a shrewd and intelligent businessman.

Astor's early success convinced him that a fortune could be made in the fur trade. He began to spend more time managing and expanding his business. Between 1790 and 1808 his agents collected furs from as far west as Mackinaw, Michigan. The Jay Treaty of 1794, which led to the British leaving forts and trading posts in the Old Northwest, worked to Astor's advantage, and he expanded his operations in the Great Lakes region. Through an arrangement with the British Northwest Company, he purchased furs directly from Montreal, Canada. By about 1809 he was recognized as one of the leading fur traders in the United States.



*John Jacob Astor.*

*Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery.*

### ***Fur business grows***

Following the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, which added land that contained part or all of thirteen more states to the union, Astor turned his attention to the fur trade in the Pacific Northwest. He obtained a charter (a grant of rights or privileges from the ruler of a state or country) for the American Fur Company and planned to establish a main fort at the mouth of the Columbia River, with sub-forts in the interior. His fleet of ships would collect the furs and sell them in China, where goods would be purchased for sale in Europe; in Europe merchandise could be bought to sell in the United States when the ships returned.

Although the town of Astoria was established on the Columbia, the company's operations were unsuccessful. After the War of 1812 Astor renewed his efforts to gain control of the fur trade in North America. Through influence in Congress he helped win passage of laws that banned foreigners from engaging in the trade (except as employees) and that eliminated the government's trading post serving independent traders. By the late 1820s he had sole control of the fur trade in the Great Lakes region and most of the Mississippi Valley. This put him into direct competition with the Rocky Mountain Fur Company and British fur interests in the Pacific

Northwest. However, by 1830 Astor's interest in the company had begun to decline.

### **Other importing**

Through Astor's dealings in the fur trade he became involved in general merchandising. During the 1790s he had begun to import and sell a large variety of European goods. During this early period he showed little interest in establishing trade relations with China. Between 1800 and 1812, however, his trade with China expanded and became a large part of his business dealings in Europe. The War of 1812 temporarily disrupted his plans, but it also gave him an opportunity to purchase ships at a bargain price, since declining trade had made other merchants anxious to dispose of their fleets.

After the war Astor had a large fleet of sailing vessels and again became active in the China and Pacific trade. For a time he was involved in smuggling Turkish opium (an addictive drug) into China but found the profits were not worth the risk and abandoned this venture. Between 1815 and 1820 he enjoyed a commanding position in trade with China. Thereafter his interest declined, and he turned his attention to other business activities. One explanation for Astor's success as a merchant was that he had the money to buy quality merchandise at a low cost and a fleet of ships that could transport the goods to markets more quickly than his rivals.

### **Still dealing in later years**

Astor retired from the American Fur Company and withdrew from both domestic and foreign trade in 1834. He turned to other investments, including real estate, money-lending, insurance companies, banking, rail-

roads and canals, public securities, and the hotel business. The most important was real estate. He had invested some capital in land early in his career. After 1800 he concentrated on real estate in New York City. He profited not only from the sale of lands and rents but from the increasing value of lands within the city. During the last decade of his life his income from rents alone exceeded \$1,250,000. His total wealth was estimated at \$20–30 million (the greatest source being his land holdings on Manhattan Island) at his death on March 29, 1848, at the age of 84.

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## MARGARET ATWOOD

**Born:** November 18, 1939

**Ottawa, Ontario, Canada**

*Canadian author, novelist, poet and cultural activist*

One of Canada's best-known writers, Margaret Atwood is an internationally famous novelist, poet, and critic. She is also committed to positive change in our way of life.

### **Early freedom**

Margaret Eleanor Atwood was born in Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, in 1939. She moved with her family to Sault Ste. Marie, Canada, in 1945 and to Toronto, Canada, in 1946. Until she was eleven she spent half of each year in the northern Ontario wilderness, where her father worked as an entomologist (insect scientist). Her writing was one of the many things she enjoyed in her “bush” time, away from school. At age six she was writing morality plays, poems, comic books, and had started a novel. School and preadolescence brought her a taste for home economics. Her writing resurfaced in high school, though, where she returned to writing poetry. Her favorite writer as a teen was Edgar Allan Poe (1809–1849), who was famous for his dark mystery stories.

Atwood was sixteen years old when she made her commitment to pursue writing as a lifetime career. She studied at Victoria College, University of Toronto, where she received a bachelor's degree in 1961. Then she went on to complete her master's degree at Radcliffe College in Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1962. Atwood also studied at Harvard University in Cambridge, Massachusetts, from 1962 to 1963 and from 1965 to 1967.

### **Honors and awards**

Atwood has received more than fifty-five awards, including two Governor General's Awards, the first in 1966 for *The Circle Game*, her first major book of poems; the second for her 1985 novel, *The Handmaid's Tale*, which was made into a movie. In 1981 she worked on a television drama, *Snowbird*,



Margaret Atwood.

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and had her children's book *Anna's Pet* (1980) adapted for stage (1986). Her recognition is often reflective of the wide range of her work. She is also a major public figure and cultural commentator.

Most of Atwood's fiction has been translated into several foreign languages. A new Atwood novel becomes a Canadian, American, and international bestseller immediately. There is a Margaret Atwood Society, a *Margaret Atwood Newsletter*, and an ever-increasing number of scholars studying and teaching her work in women's studies courses and in North American literature courses worldwide.

### **Style and statement**

Atwood has alternated prose (writing that differs from poetry due to lack of rhyme and closeness to everyday speech) and poetry throughout her career, often publishing a book of each in the same or consecutive years. While in a general sense the poems represent “private” myth and “personal” expression and the novels represent a more public and “social” expression, there is, as these dates suggest, continual interweaving and cross-connection between her prose and her poetry. The short story collections, *Dancing Girls* (1977), *Bluebeard’s Egg* (1983), and especially the short stories in the remarkable collection *Murder in the Dark* (1983) bridge the gap between her poetry and her prose.

Atwood writes in an exact, vivid, and witty, style in both prose and poetry. Her writing is often unsparing in its gaze at pain and unfairness: “you fit into me / like a hook into an eye / a fish hook / an open eye” (from *Power Politics*) “Nature” in her poems is a haunted, clearly Canadian wilderness in which, dangerously, man is the major predator of and terror to the “animals of that country,” including himself.

Atwood’s novels are sarcastic jabs at society as well as identity quests. Her typical heroine is a modern urban woman, often a writer or artist, always with some social-professional commitment. The heroine fights for self and survival in a society where men are the all-too-friendly enemy, but where women are often participants in their own entrapment.

Atwood is also a talented photographer and watercolorist. Her paintings are clearly descriptive of her prose and poetry and she did, on occasion, design her own book cov-

ers. Her collages and cover for *The Journals of Susanna Moodie* bring together the visual and the written word.

### **Popular and accessible**

Atwood is known as a very accessible writer. One of her projects, the official Margaret Atwood Website, is edited by Atwood herself and updated frequently. The Internet resource is an extensive, comprehensive guide to the literary life of the author. It also reveals a peek into Atwood’s personality with the links to her favorite charities, such as the Artists Against Racism site, or humorous blurbs she posts when the whim hits. As well, the site provides dates of lectures and appearances, updates of current writing projects, and reviews she has written. The address is: <http://www.owtoad.com>

Margaret Atwood’s contribution to Canadian literature was most recently recognized in 2000, when she received Britain’s highest literary award, the \$47,000 Booker Prize. Atwood donated the prize money to environmental and literary causes. Her generosity is not at all a surprising development to her many fans.

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## W. H. AUDEN

**Born:** February 21, 1907

**York, England**

**Died:** September 28, 1973

**Vienna, Austria**

*English-born American poet*

The English-born American poet W. H. Auden was one of the greatest poets of the twentieth century. His works center on moral issues and show strong political, social, and psychological (involving the study of the mind) orientations.

### *Early life*

Wystan Hugh Auden was born on February 21, 1907, in York, England. He was the last of three sons born to George and Constance Auden. His father was the medical officer for the city of Birmingham, England, and a psychologist (a person who studies the mind). His mother was a devoted Anglican (a member of the Church of England). The combination of religious and scientific themes are buried throughout Auden's work. The industrial area where he grew up shows up often in his adult poetry. Like many young boys in his city, he was interested in machines, mining, and metals and wanted to be a mining engineer. With both grandfathers being Anglican ministers, Auden once commented that if he had not become a poet he might have ended up as an Anglican bishop.

Another influential childhood experience was his time served as a choirboy. He states in his autobiographical sketch, *A Certain World*,

"it was there that I acquired a sensitivity to language which I could not have acquired in any other way." He was educated at St. Edmund's preparatory school and at Oxford University. At Oxford fellow undergraduates Cecil Day Lewis, Louis MacNeice, and Stephen Spender, with Auden, formed the group called the Oxford Group or the "Auden Generation."

At school Auden was interested in science, but at Oxford he studied English. He disliked the Romantic (nineteenth-century emotional style of writing) poets Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822) and John Keats (1795–1821), whom he was inclined to refer to as "Kelly and Sheets." This break with the English post-Romantic tradition was important for his contemporaries. It is perhaps still more important that Auden was the first poet in English to use the imagery (language that creates a specific image) and sometimes the terminology (terms that are specific to a field) of clinical psychoanalysis (analysis and treatment of emotional disorders).

### *Early publications and travels*

In 1928, when Auden was twenty-one, a small volume of his poems was privately printed by a school friend. *Poems* was published a year later by Faber and Faber (of which T. S. Eliot [1888–1965] was a director). The *Orators* (1932) was a volume consisting of odes (poems focused on extreme feelings), parodies (take offs) of school speeches, and sermons that criticized England. It set the mood for a generation of public school boys who were in revolt against the empire of Great Britain and fox hunting.

After completing school Auden traveled with friends in Germany, Iceland, and China. He then worked with them to write *Letters*



W. H. Auden.

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from *Iceland* (1937) and *Journey To A War* (1939). In 1939 Auden took up residence in the United States, supporting himself by teaching at various universities. In 1946 he became a U.S. citizen, by which time his literary career had become a series of well-recognized successes. He received the Pulitzer Prize and the Bollingen Award and enjoyed his standing as one of the most distinguished poets of his generation. From 1956 to 1961 he was professor of poetry at Oxford University.

#### ***Poetic themes and techniques***

Auden's early poetry, influenced by his interest in the Anglo-Saxon language as well

as in psychoanalysis, was sometimes riddle-like and clinical. It also contained private references that most readers did not understand. At the same time it had a mystery that would disappear in his later poetry.

In the 1930s W. H. Auden became famous when literary journalists described him as the leader of the so-called "Oxford Group," a circle of young English poets influenced by literary Modernism, in particular by the artistic principles adopted by T. S. Eliot. Rejecting the traditional poetic forms favored by their Victorian predecessors, the Modernist poets favored concrete imagery and free verse. In his work Auden applied concepts and science to traditional verse forms and metrical (having a measured rhythm) patterns while including the industrial countryside of his youth. Coming to the United States was seen by some as the start of a new phase of his work. World War II (1939–45; a war in which France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan) had soured him to politics and warmed him to morality and spirituality.

Among Auden's highly regarded skills was the ability to think in terms of both symbols and reality at the same time, so that intellectual ideas were transformed. He rooted ideas through creatures of his imagining for whom the reader could often feel affection while appreciating the stern and cold outline of the ideas themselves. He nearly always used language that was interesting in texture as well as brilliant verbally. He employed a great variety of intricate and extremely difficult technical forms. Throughout his career he often wrote pure lyrics of grave beauty, such as "Lay Your Sleeping

Head, My Love” and “Look Stranger.” His literary contributions include librettos (opera texts) and motion picture documentaries. He worked with Chester Kallmann on the libretto, the most important of which was T. S. Eliot’s *The Rakes Progress* (1951).

Auden was well educated and intelligent, a genius of form and technique. In his poetry he realized a lifelong search for a philosophical and religious position from which to analyze and comprehend the individual life in relation to society and to the human condition in general. He was able to express his dislike for a difficult government, his suspicion of science without human feeling, and his belief in a Christian God.

### Later works

In his final years Auden wrote the volumes *City without Walls, and Many Other Poems* (1969), *Epistle to a Godson, and Other Poems* (1972), and *Thank You, Fog: Last Poems* (1974), which was published posthumously (after his death). All three works are noted for their lexical (word and vocabulary relationship) range and humanitarian (compassionate) content. Auden’s tendency to alter and discard poems has prompted publication of several anthologies (collected works) in the decades since his death on September 28, 1973, in Vienna, Austria. The multivolume *Complete Works of W. H. Auden* was published in 1989. Auden is now considered one of the greatest poets of the English language.

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## JOHN JAMES AUDUBON

**Born:** April 26, 1785

**Les Cayes, Saint Dominigue (French colony)**

**Died:** January 27, 1851

**New York, New York**

*French-born American artist and ornithologist*

American artist and ornithologist (one who studies birds) John James Audubon was a leading natural history artist who made drawings of birds directly from nature. He is mainly remembered for his *Birds of America* series.

### Early life and move to France

John James Audubon was born in Saint Dominigue (now Haiti) on April 26, 1785. He was the son of Jean Audubon, a French adventurer, and Mademoiselle Rabin, about whom little is known except that she was a Creole and died soon after her son’s birth. Audubon was an illegitimate child, meaning that his father was not married to his mother. Audubon’s father had made his fortune in San Domingo as a merchant, a planter, and a dealer of slaves. In 1789 Audubon went with his father and a half sister to France, where they joined his father’s wife. Their father and his wife adopted the children in 1794.





*John James Audubon.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Audubon's education was arranged by his father. He was sent to a nearby school and was tutored in mathematics, geography, drawing, music, and fencing. According to Audubon's own account, he had no interest in school, preferring instead to fish, hunt, and explore the outdoors. He was left with his stepmother most of the time while his father served as a naval officer. Audubon became a spoiled, stubborn youth who managed to resist all efforts to both educate him and keep him under control. When residence at a naval base under his father's direct supervision failed to have any effect, he was sent briefly to Paris to study art, but he disliked that also.

### ***Business career in America***

Audubon's father decided to send his son to America, where he owned a farm near Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. At first the boy lived with friends of his father. They tried to teach him English and other things, but after a time he demanded to live on his father's farm. There Audubon continued living the life of a country gentleman—fishing, shooting, and developing his skill at drawing birds, the only occupation to which he was ever willing to give effort. When Audubon began his work in the early nineteenth century, there was no such profession as a “naturalist” in America. The men who engaged in natural history investigations came from all walks of life and paid for their work—collecting, writing, and publication—from their own resources. Audubon developed a system of inserting wires into the bodies of freshly killed birds in order to move them into natural poses for his sketches.

In 1805 Audubon returned briefly to France after a long battle with his father's business agent in America. While in France he formed a business partnership with Ferdinand Rozier, the son of one of his father's associates. Together the two returned to America and tried to operate a lead mine on the farm. Then in August 1807 the partners decided to move west. There followed a series of business failures in various cities in Kentucky, caused largely by Audubon's preference for roaming the woods rather than keeping the store. During this period he married Lucy Bakewell. After the failures with Rozier, Audubon, in association with his brother-in-law, Thomas Bakewell, and others, attempted to start several more businesses, the last being a lumber mill in Hen-

derson, Kentucky. In 1819 this venture failed and Audubon was left with only the clothes on his back, his gun, and his drawings. This disaster ended his business career.

### ***“Birds of America”***

For a time Audubon made crayon portraits (drawings of individual people) for \$5 per portrait. Then he moved to Cincinnati, Ohio, where he became a taxidermist (one who stuffs and mounts the skins of animals) in the Western Museum that had been recently founded by Dr. Daniel Drake. In 1820 the possibility of publishing his bird drawings occurred to him. He set out down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, exploring the country for new birds and paying his expenses by painting portraits. For a while he supported himself in New Orleans by tutoring and painting. His wife also worked as a tutor and later opened a school for girls. She became the family's main financial support while Audubon focused on publishing his drawings.

In 1824 Audubon went to Philadelphia to seek a publisher. He met with opposition, however, from the friends of Alexander Wilson (1766–1813), the other major American ornithologist with whom Audubon had begun a bitter rivalry in 1810. He finally decided to raise the money for a trip to Europe, where he felt he would find greater interest in his drawings. He arrived in Liverpool, England, in 1826, then moved on to Edinburgh, Scotland, and to London, England, signing up subscribers for his volumes in each city. Audubon finally reached an agreement with a London publisher, and in 1827 volumes of *Birds of America* began to appear. It took eleven years in all for the publication and reprintings of all the volumes.

The success of Audubon's bird drawings brought him immediate fame, and by 1831 he was considered the leading naturalist of his country, despite the fact that he possessed no formal scientific training. There was an intense popular interest in the marvels of nature during this era. Anyone who could capture the natural beauty of wild specimens was certain to take his place among the front ranks of those recognized as “men of science.” Audubon had succeeded in giving the world the first great collection of American birds, drawn in their natural habitats as close to nature as possible.

### ***Later years***

With his great work finally finished in 1838, and the *Ornithological Biography* (a text-only book about birds) in publication, Audubon returned to America to prepare a “miniature” edition. He also began drawings for a new book (in collaboration with John Bachman), *Viviparous Quadrupeds of North America*, for which his sons contributed many of the drawings.

In 1841 Audubon bought an estate on the Hudson River and settled down to advise and encourage young scientists. It was during this period that the romantic picture of Audubon as the “American Woodsman,” the great lover of birds, began to emerge. After several years of illness, Audubon suffered a slight stroke in January 1851, followed by partial paralysis and great pain. Audubon died on January 27, 1851.

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## AUGUSTUS

**Born:** September 23, 63 B.C.E.

**Rome** (now in Italy)

**Died:** August 19, C.E. 14

**Nola** (now in Italy)

*Roman emperor*

Augustus was the first emperor of Rome. He established the principate, the form of government under which Rome ruled its empire for three hundred years. He had an extraordinary talent for statesmanship (the ability to take an active role in the shaping of a government) and sought to preserve the best traditions of republican Rome, the period in ancient Rome's history when governing power was in the hands of the Senate rather than the emperor.

### *Caesar's legacy*

Augustus was born Gaius Octavius on September 23, 63 B.C.E., in Rome. His father had held several political offices and had earned a fine reputation, but he died when Octavius was four. The people who most influenced young Octavius were his mother, Atia, who was the niece of the Roman leader Julius Caesar (c. 100–44 B.C.E.), and Julius Caesar himself. Unlike Caesar, one of Rome's military heroes, Augustus was sickly as a

young boy. Poor health troubled him throughout his life. Nevertheless his mother, who made sure the finest teachers tutored him at home, groomed him for the world of politics. By the age of sixteen he was planning to join his great-uncle and serve in Caesar's army.

At this time Rome and the areas it controlled were governed by the Senate, composed largely of members of a small group of upper class citizens who had inherited their positions. The generals who commanded the armies that conquered new territory for Rome's rule increasingly challenged the Senate's authority, however. One such general, Caesar, had basically become a dictator (someone who assumes absolute power) of Rome. The Senate strongly opposed Caesar, and in 44 B.C.E. conspirators (a group of people who plot in secret) assassinated (killed) him.

When Caesar's will was read, it revealed that Caesar had adopted Octavius as his son and heir. Octavius then set out to claim his inheritance in 43 B.C.E., changing his name to Octavian (Gaius Julius Caesar Octavianus in Latin).

### *Rise to power*

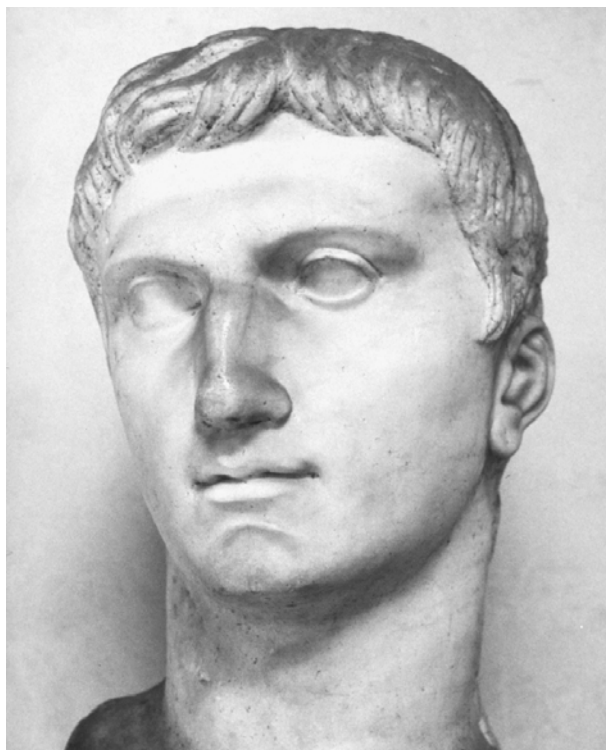
Octavian's rival at this time was Mark Antony (c. 83–30 B.C.E.), who had taken command of Caesar's legions, the largest Roman military units. The two men became enemies immediately when Octavian announced his intention to take over his inheritance. Antony was engaged in war against the Senate to avenge Caesar's murder and to further his own ambitions. Octavian sided with the Senate and joined in the fight. Antony was defeated in 43 B.C.E., but the Senate refused Octavian the triumph he felt

he was owed. As a result Octavian abandoned the senators and joined forces with Antony and Lepidus, another of Caesar's officers. The three men, who called themselves the Second Triumvirate (a group of three officials or government leaders in ancient Rome), defeated their opponents in 42 B.C.E. and assumed full governing power.

They then divided the empire into areas of influence. Octavian took the West; Antony, the East; and Lepidus, Africa. Over time Lepidus lost power, and it seemed impossible that Antony and Octavian could avoid clashing. In 32 B.C.E. Octavian declared war against Queen Cleopatra of Egypt, to whom Antony was romantically and politically tied. After a decisive naval victory in this conflict, Octavian was left as master of the entire Roman world. The following year Antony and Cleopatra committed suicide (killed themselves), and in 29 B.C.E. Octavian returned to Rome in triumph.

### ***Political authority and achievements***

Octavian's power was based on his control of the army, his financial resources, and his enormous popularity. The system of government he established, however, also recognized and made important compromises toward renewing republican feeling. In 27 B.C.E. he went before the Senate and announced that he was restoring the rule of the Roman world to the Senate and the people. To show their appreciation, the members of the Senate voted him special powers and gave him the title Augustus, indicating his superior position in the state. A joint government developed that in theory was a partnership. Augustus, however, was in fact the senior partner. The government was formalized in 23 B.C.E., when the Senate



*Augustus.*

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gave Augustus enormous control over the army, foreign policy, and legislation.

As emperor Augustus concerned himself with every detail of the empire. He secured its boundaries, provided for the defense of remote areas, reorganized the army, and created a navy. He also formed a large civil service department, which attended to the general business of managing Rome's vast empire. Augustus was also interested in encouraging a return to the religious dedication and morality of early Rome. His efforts included passing laws to regulate marriage and family life and to control promiscuity (loose sexual behavior). He made adultery

(when a married person has a sexual relationship with someone other than his or her spouse) a criminal offense, and he encouraged the birthrate by granting privileges to couples with three or more children.

### ***The succession***

Augustus suffered many illnesses, but he outlived his preferred choices for legal heir. He was finally forced to appoint as his heir Tiberius, his third wife's son by her first marriage. Tiberius took power upon Augustus's death on August 19, C.E. 14.

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## AUNG SAN SUU KYI

**Born:** June 19, 1945

**Rangoon, Burma (present-day Myanmar)**

*Burmese political leader*

**I**n 1988 Aung San Suu Kyi became the major leader of the movement toward the reestablishment of democracy in Burma (now Myanmar). In 1991, while under house arrest by the government for her activities, she was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

### ***Early life***

Aung San Suu Kyi was born in Rangoon, Burma, on June 19, 1945, the youngest of three children of Bogoyoke (Generalissimo) Aung San and Daw Khin Kyi. (In Burma all names are individual and people do not have last names.) Her father is known as the founder of independent Burma in 1948 and is beloved in that country. He played a major role in helping Burma win independence from the British, and he was able to win the respect of different ethnic groups through the force of his personality and the trust he inspired. Her mother had been active in women's political groups before marrying Aung San, and the couple often hosted political gatherings in their home, even after the births of their children. In July 1947 Aung San, along with most of his cabinet, was assassinated by members of an opposing political group. He never saw his country become independent on January 4, 1948.

Aung San Suu Kyi spent her early years in Burma. She later joined her mother, who was appointed as Burmese ambassador (representative) to India in 1960. She was partly educated in secondary school in India and then attended St. Hugh's College, Oxford University, in England. While there, she studied politics, economics (the production, distribution, and use of goods and services), and philosophy (the study of ideas) and received her bachelor's and master's degrees. From her father she developed a sense of duty to her country, and from her mother, who never spoke of hatred for her husband's killers, she learned forgiveness. She also became influenced by the teachings of Indian leader Mohandas Gandhi (1869–1948), who was a believer in nonviolent civil disobedience.

For two years Aung San Suu Kyi worked at the United Nations (U.N.) in New York, New York. In 1972 she married Michael Vailancourt Aris, a well-known scholar she had met while studying at Oxford. They had two sons and settled in England. Before they were married, Aung San Suu Kyi warned her fiancé that the people of Burma might need her one day and she would have to go back. She served as a visiting scholar at the Center for Southeast Asian Studies, Kyoto University, Japan, from 1985 to 1986 and at the Indian Institute of Advanced Studies in Simla, India, in 1987.

### ***Government takeover and house arrest***

After her mother suffered a stroke in 1988, Aung San Suu Kyi returned to Rangoon, Myanmar, to help take care of her. Later that year, there was a revolt against the overly strict administration associated with the militarily led Burma Socialist Party. This revolt started as a student brawl with no real political meaning. However, it was handled badly by the military and spread, becoming an expression of the unhappiness of the people that dated back to the last takeover in 1962. Unfortunately, the new group that took power, called the State Law and Order Restoration Council (SLORC), did not improve conditions in the country. In August 1988 Aung San Suu Kyi gained national recognition as the effective leader of the National League for Democracy (NLD), later opposed to the military-led SLORC. She became the general secretary of the NLD and was a popular and effective speaker in favor of democracy throughout the country. As a result she was placed under house arrest by the SLORC for attempting to split the army, a charge she denied.



*Aung San Suu Kyi.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

Although Aung San Suu Kyi was not allowed to run for office in the May 1990 election, her party, the NLD, much to the surprise of the military, won 80 percent of the legislative seats. However, the winning candidates were never permitted to take office. For the first years of her house arrest Aung San Suu Kyi was not allowed to have any visitors, but later her immediate family was allowed to see her. In January 1994 the first visitor outside of her family, U.S. Congressman Bill Richardson, a Democrat from New Mexico, was allowed to meet with her. The United Nations called for her release, as did a number of other national and international groups, including Amnesty

International, the worldwide human rights organization. She won many awards for democracy and human rights, including the Sakharov Prize for Freedom of Thought (European Parliament, 1991), the Nobel Peace Prize (1991), and the International Simon Bolívar Prize (1992).

### ***Restrictions continue***

Aung San Suu Kyi remained under military watch and house arrest until July 1995. Afterward the government continued to restrict her movement both inside the country and abroad. During Aung San Suu Kyi's first year of freedom, she was only permitted to take short trips in and around her home city of Rangoon and did not travel outside Myanmar. She continued, however, to serve as the vocal leader of the NLD and push for democracy. The military government, meanwhile, closed schools, ignored the healthcare needs of the people, and forced many citizens into slave labor while torturing and imprisoning others.

In 1999 Michael Vaillancourt Aris, Aung San Suu Kyi's husband, died in England. He had been denied permission by the Myanmar government to visit his wife during the last year of his life. The government suggested she go to visit him, but she remained at home, fearing that if she left, she would not be allowed to reenter the country. In September 2000 she was again placed under house arrest after attempting to travel to rural areas outside Myanmar to meet with NLD members. In December of that year U.S. president Bill Clinton (1946–) awarded her the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the highest U.S. honor given to a civilian (nonmember of a military, police, or firefighting unit). The U.S. government also continued the ban on new invest-

ment in Myanmar and discouraged companies from doing business there as a protest against the military government's treatment of Aung San Suu Kyi and other citizens of Myanmar.

In December 2001, in Oslo, Norway, Nobel Prize winners gathered to protest Aung San Suu Kyi's continued detention and signed an appeal to the Myanmar government requesting that she and fifteen hundred other political prisoners be set free. In May 2002 Aung San Suu Kyi was finally released from house arrest. Once again free to move about the country, Aung San Suu Kyi drew large crowds wherever she spoke to her followers about freedom in Myanmar. "The NLD is working for the welfare of everyone in the country, not for NLD alone," she told an audience of supporters a few days after her release.

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JANE  
AUSTEN

**Born:** December 16, 1775

**Steventon, England**

**Died:** July 18, 1817

**Winchester, England**

*English author, novelist, and writer*

The English writer Jane Austen was one of the most important novelists of the nineteenth century. In her intense concentration on the thoughts and feelings of a limited number of characters, Jane Austen created as profound an understanding and as precise a vision of the potential of the human spirit as the art of fiction has ever achieved. Although her novels received favorable reviews, she was not celebrated as an author during her lifetime.

### *Family, education, and a love for writing*

Jane Austen was born on December 16, 1775, at Steventon, in the south of England, where her father served as a rector (preacher) for the rural community. She was the seventh of eight children in an affectionate and high-spirited family. As one of only two girls, Jane was very attached to her sister throughout her life. Because of the ignorance of the day, Jane's education was inadequate by today's standards. This coupled with Mr. Austen's meager salary kept Jane's formal training to a minimum. To supplement his income as a rector, Mr. Austen tutored young men. It is believed that Jane may have picked up Latin from staying close to home and listening in on these lessons. At the age of six she was writing verses. A two-year stay at a small boarding school trained Jane in needlework, dancing, French, drawing, and spelling, all training geared to produce marriageable young women. It was this social atmosphere and feminine identity that Jane so skillfully satirized (mocked) in her many works of fiction. She never married herself, but did receive at least one proposal and led an active and happy life, unmarked by dramatic incident and surrounded by her family.



*Jane Austen.*

Austen began writing as a young girl and by the age of fourteen had completed *Love and Friendship*. This early work, an amusing parody (imitation) of the overdramatic novels popular at that time, shows clear signs of her talent for humorous and satirical writing. Three volumes of her collected young writings were published more than a hundred years after her death.

### *Sense and Sensibility*

Jane Austen's first major novel was *Sense and Sensibility*, whose main characters are two sisters. The first draft was written in 1795 and was titled *Elinor and Marianne*. In 1797 Austen rewrote the novel and titled it *Sense*



*and Sensibility*. After years of polishing, it was finally published in 1811.

As the original and final titles indicate, the novel contrasts the temperaments of the two sisters. Elinor governs her life by sense or reasonableness, while Marianne is ruled by sensibility or feeling. Although the plot favors the value of reason over that of emotion, the greatest emphasis is placed on the moral principles of human affairs and on the need for enlarged thought and feeling in response to it.

### **Pride and Prejudice**

In 1796, when Austen was twenty-one years old, she wrote the novel *First Impressions*. The work was rewritten and published under the title *Pride and Prejudice* in 1813. It is her most popular and perhaps her greatest novel. It achieves this distinction by virtue of its perfection of form, which exactly balances and expresses its human content. As in *Sense and Sensibility*, the descriptive terms in the title are closely associated with the two main characters.

The form of the novel is dialectical—the opposition of ethical (conforming or not conforming to standards of conduct and moral reason) principles is expressed in the relations of believable characters. The resolution of the main plot with the marriage of the two opposites represents a reconciliation of conflicting moral extremes. The value of pride is affirmed when humanized by the wife's warm personality, and the value of prejudice is affirmed when associated with the husband's standards of traditional honor.

During 1797–1798 Austen wrote *Northanger Abbey*, which was published

posthumously (after death). It is a fine satirical novel, making sport of the popular Gothic novel of terror, but it does not rank among her major works. In the following years she wrote *The Watsons* (1803 or later), which is a fragment of a novel similar in mood to her later *Mansfield Park*, and *Lady Susan* (1804 or later), a short novel in letters.

### **Mansfield Park**

In 1811 Jane Austen began *Mansfield Park*, which was published in 1814. It is her most severe exercise in moral analysis and presents a conservative view of ethics, politics, and religion.

The novel traces the career of a Cinderella-like heroine, who is brought from a poor home to Mansfield Park, the country estate of her relative. She is raised with some of the comforts of her cousins, but her social rank is maintained at a lower level. Despite their strict upbringing, the cousins become involved in marital and extramarital tangles, which bring disasters and near-disasters on the family. But the heroine's upright character guides her through her own relationships with dignity—although sometimes with a chilling disdainfulness (open disapproval)—and leads to her triumph at the close of the novel. While some readers may not like the rather priggish (following rules of proper behavior to an extreme degree) heroine, the reader nonetheless develops a sympathetic understanding of her thoughts and emotions. The reader also learns to value her at least as highly as the more attractive, but less honest, members of Mansfield Park's wealthy family and social circle.

## Emma

Shortly before *Mansfield Park* was published, Jane Austen began a new novel, *Emma*, and published it in 1816. Again the heroine does engage the reader's sympathy and understanding. Emma is a girl of high intelligence and vivid imagination who is also marked by egotism and a desire to dominate the lives of others. She exercises her powers of manipulation on a number of neighbors who are not able to resist her prying. Most of Emma's attempts to control her friends, however, do not have happy effects for her or for them. But influenced by an old boyfriend who is her superior in intelligence and maturity, she realizes how misguided many of her actions are. The novel ends with the decision of a warmer and less headstrong Emma to marry him. There is much evidence to support the argument of some critics that *Emma* is Austen's most brilliant novel.

## Persuasion

*Persuasion*, begun in 1815 and published posthumously in 1818, is Jane Austen's last complete novel and is perhaps most directly expressive of her feelings about her own life. The heroine is a woman growing older with a sense that life has passed her by. Several years earlier she had fallen in love with a suitor but was parted from him

because her class-conscious family insisted she make a more appropriate match. But she still loves him, and when he again enters her life, their love deepens and ends in marriage.

Austen's satirical treatment of social pretensions and worldly motives is perhaps at its keenest in this novel, especially in her presentation of Anne's family. The predominant tone of *Persuasion*, however, is not satirical but romantic. It is, in the end, the most uncomplicated love story that Jane Austen ever wrote and, to some tastes, the most beautiful.

The novel *Sanditon* was unfinished at her death on July 8, 1817. She died in Winchester, England, where she had gone to seek medical attention, and was buried there.

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## BAAL SHEM TOV

**Born:** c. 1700

**Okopy, Poland**

**Died:** c. 1760

*Polish religious leader*

**T**he founder of modern Hasidism was the Polish-born Israel ben Eliezer, who is generally known as Baal Shem Tov.

### *Early life*

Israel ben Eliezer was born to aged parents in Okopy, Poland, a small town that is

now in the Ukraine, Russia. Most of what is known of his childhood is the product of legend and is difficult to verify. He was apprenticed (worked underneath someone in order to learn a trade from them) to the local teacher. Later he worked as an aid to the sexton (a person who looks after the grounds and building) of the synagogue (Jewish religious site), where he spent his nights studying the Cabala, or Jewish mystic lore.

Ben Eliezer married at the traditional age of eighteen, but his wife died shortly afterward. He then moved to Brody, in Galicia (a region of Eastern Europe), where he met and married the rabbi's sister. They moved to a distant village in the Carpathians (a mountain range in Eastern Europe). There Ben

Eliezer worked as a laborer, but he managed to devote considerable time to prayer and contemplation in the forest.

### ***Becomes a religious leader***

At this time Ben Eliezer learned the use of medicinal herbs for treating disease and became known as a healer and a worker of wonders. He was called the Baal Shem Tov, which means Good Master of the Name (of God). He ministered (treated) to his rural neighbors, both Christians and Jews, and performed miraculous cures of both body and soul. He is said to have undergone an important self-revelation at the age of thirty-six through the intervention of a divine spirit.

About 1740 the Besht (the common abbreviation of Baal Shem Tov) settled in Miedzyboz, Podolia. His kindliness and holiness attracted many followers, who were called Hasidim (the pious). The Besht's teachings emphasized spiritual communion (a meeting that takes place, not between physical bodies, but between spirits) with God, which was achieved not only in prayer but also in every aspect of everyday life. He taught that all man's deeds must express his worship of God. He disagreed with people who studied the Torah (Jewish religious writings) and worshipped as if it were a school lesson, precise and academic. He told his followers that worshipping should be done with a complete act of body, mind, and soul and should be joyous.

The Besht angered other Jews, who preferred to emphasize the rational discipline of prayer and study of the Torah. The Besht believed that he was a righteous person whose prayers opened the gates of heaven. He believed that others who had superhuman powers like him were born in every genera-

tion. He called these righteous leaders the tzaddikim (the "righteous ones"). His teaching especially appealed to those who were uneducated, because he said that the way to reach God did not require great learning. He used anecdotes (short, clever, or amusing stories) and parables (short stories told for the purpose of teaching a virtue or a religious idea) to illustrate his ideas. He criticized asceticism, the practice of denying oneself worldly pleasure in order to illustrate spiritual devotion. Instead he emphasized joy in observing Jewish law.

His followers, the Hasidim, changed many of the ways Judaism was traditionally practiced. For instance, they prayed in small rooms instead of in synagogues. This practice horrified other Jews, who felt it was too big a break with tradition.

### ***Becomes a legend***

Many legends grew up about the Besht. It was said he understood the language of plants and animals, and that he could walk on water. Some said that he talked to the Messiah (the king of the Jews who had been foretold by the prophets) on a regular basis. Still others believed that freedom would come to all Jews when the teachings of Baal Shem Tov were believed all over the world.

Baal Shem Tov wrote no works, but after his death his followers published compilations of his sayings and teachings. The Besht and the Hasidism had, and continue to have, a notable impact on Jewish life.

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## CHARLES BABBAGE

**Born:** December 26, 1791

**London, England**

**Died:** October 18, 1871

**London, England**

*English mathematician and inventor*

Charles Babbage was an English inventor and mathematician whose mathematical machines were based on ideas that were later put to use in modern computers. Indeed, Babbage is sometimes

even called the inventor of the computer. He was also a pioneer in the scientific understanding of manufacturing processes.

### *A bright, curious child*

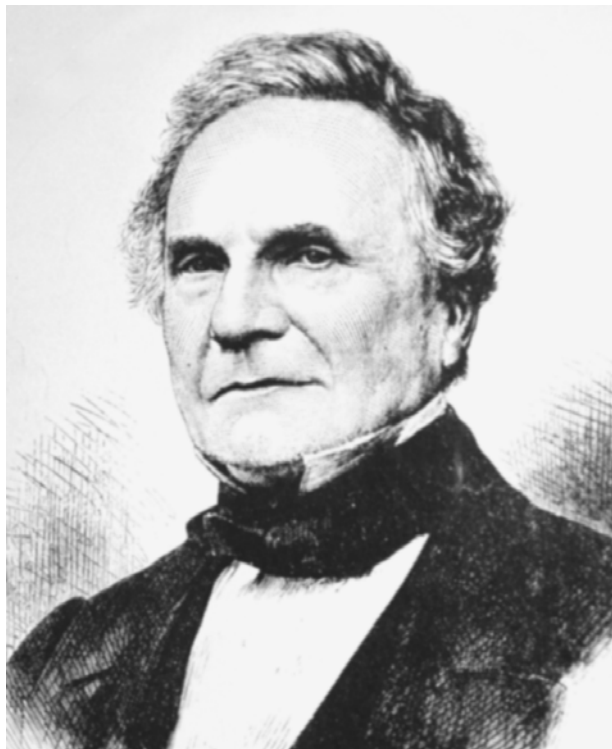
Charles Babbage was born on December 26, 1791, in London, England. His father, Benjamin Jr., was a banker and merchant. One of his grandfathers, Benjamin Sr., had been mayor of Totnes, England. Babbage was always curious—when he would receive a new toy, he would ask his mother, Elizabeth, what was inside of it. He would then take apart the toy to figure out how it worked. Babbage was also interested in mathematics at a young age, and he taught himself algebra.

The Babbage family was wealthy, and Charles received much of his early education from private tutors. In 1810 he entered Trinity College at Cambridge University. He found that he knew more about mathematics than did his instructors. Very unhappy with the poor state of mathematical instruction there, Babbage helped to organize the Analytical Society, which played a key role in reducing the uncritical following of Sir Issac Newton (1642–1727; English scientist, mathematician, and astronomer) at Cambridge and at Oxford University.

In 1814, the same year of Babbage's graduation from Cambridge, he married Georgiana Whitmore. They had eight children together, but only three lived beyond childhood. Georgiana herself died in 1827.

### *Mathematical engines*

In 1822 Babbage produced the first model of the calculating engine, which



*Charles Babbage.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

would become the main interest of his life. The machine calculated and printed mathematical tables. He called it a “difference engine” after the mathematical theory upon which the machine’s operation was based. The government was interested in his device and made a vague promise to fund his research. This encouraged Babbage to begin building a full-scale machine.

But Babbage had underestimated the difficulties involved. Many of the machine tools he needed to shape the wheels, gears, and cranks of the engine did not exist. Therefore, Babbage and his craftsmen had to design the

tools themselves. The resulting delays worried the government, and the funding was held back.

Meanwhile, the idea for a far grander engine had entered Babbage’s ever-active mind: the “analytical engine.” This machine would be able to perform any mathematical operation according to a series of instructions given to the machine. Babbage asked the government for a decision on which engine to finish. After an eight-year pause for thought, the government decided that it wanted neither.

### *Other interests*

Babbage managed to squeeze in an incredible variety of activities between dealing with the government and working on his engines. In addition to other subjects, he wrote several articles on mathematics, the decline of science in England, the rationalization of manufacturing processes, religion, archeology, tool design, and submarine navigation. He helped found the Astronomical Society, which later became the Royal Astronomical Society, as well as other organizations. He was Lucasian professor of mathematics at Cambridge for ten years. He was better known, though, for his seemingly endless campaign against organ-grinders (people who produce music by cranking a hand organ) on the streets of London.

He always returned to his great engines—but none were ever finished. He died on October 18, 1871, having played a major part in the nineteenth-century rebirth of British science.

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## JOHANN SEBASTIAN BACH

**Born:** March 21, 1685

Eisenach, Germany

**Died:** July 28, 1750

Leipzig, Germany

*German composer, organist, and musician*

The works of the German composer and organist Johann Sebastian Bach are the utmost expression of polyphony (a style of musical composition in which two independent melodies are played side by side in harmony). He is probably the only composer ever to make full use of the possibilities of art available in his time.

**Early life**

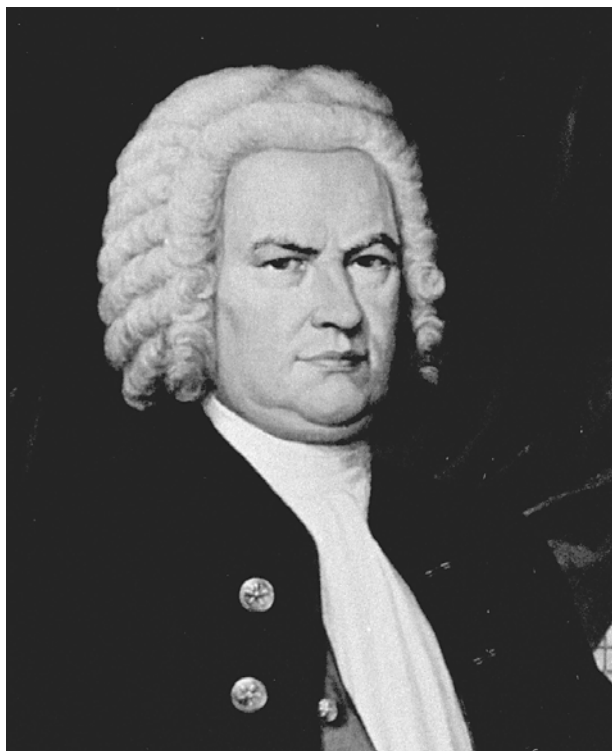
Johann Sebastian Bach was born on March 21, 1685, in Eisenach, Germany, the youngest child of Johann Ambrosius Bach, a church organist, and Elizabeth Lämmerhirt Bach. There were musicians in the Bach family going back seven generations. The family

was also devoutly Lutheran (a religion based on the faith of its believers that God has forgiven their sins). Bach received violin lessons from his father. He also had a beautiful voice and sang in the church choir. In 1694 his mother and father died within two months of each other. At age ten, Johann Sebastian moved to Ohrdruf, Germany, to live with his brother, Johann Christoph, who was the organist at St. Michael's Church. From him Johann Sebastian received his first instruction on keyboard instruments.

When an opening developed at St. Michael's School in Lüneburg in 1700, Bach was awarded a scholarship for his fine voice. After his voice changed, he was transferred to the orchestra and played violin. Bach often traveled to Hamburg, Germany, to hear other musicians. During this time he also began composing chorale preludes (organ compositions that were played before hymns sung in the Lutheran worship service). Bach graduated from St. Michael's School in 1702.

**Develops organ skill**

In 1703 Bach was hired as an organist in a church in Arnstad, Germany, which gave him time to practice on his favorite instrument and to develop his talent. He got into trouble on several occasions, once for fighting with a fellow musician and once for being caught entertaining a "strange maiden" in the balcony while he was practicing the organ. In 1705 Bach obtained a month's leave to visit a church in Lübeck, Germany, to hear the organist there. Bach was so impressed that he remained there for four months without sending word back to Arnstad about what he was doing. After returning to Arnstad, he began composing long organ preludes. After



*Johann Sebastian Bach.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

people complained, he made the preludes extremely short. He also began changing and adding parts to the hymns that confused the churchgoers.

In 1707 Bach was appointed organist at a church in Mühlhausen, Germany, a larger and richer city than Arnstadt. Later that year Bach married Maria Barbara Bach, his cousin. Bach wanted to present Mühlhausen with what he called “well-ordered church music.” His pastor, Johann Frohne, liked both the mass and the music to be simple. The brilliant Cantata No. 71, *Gott ist mein König* (God Is My King), was written for the service at which new members were placed into the city council in

February 1708. It so impressed the council that the music was printed and put into the city records. Still, the conflict between Bach’s musical ideas and those of his pastor caused Bach to look elsewhere for a new position.

### ***Working for royalty***

Bach arrived in Weimar, Germany, in 1708 as court organist to Duke Wilhelm Ernst. His new position doubled his salary and allowed him to work in a stricter Lutheran environment. The years 1708 to 1710 saw an enormous output of original organ music by Bach. His reputation at the time, however, came mainly from his organ playing, not his compositions. Crown Prince Frederick of Sweden, who heard Bach play in 1714, was so astonished that he took a diamond ring from his finger and gave it to the organist.

In 1716 Bach became upset when he was not offered the opportunity to replace the duke’s court conductor, who had died. At the same time Prince Leopold of Cöthen, Germany, heard of Bach and offered him a position. When Bach requested his release to go to Cöthen, Duke Wilhelm refused to accept such short notice. Bach, who had already accepted an advance in salary, became so angry that he was placed under arrest and jailed for almost a month. Bach began his duties at Cöthen after his release.

### ***Prime of his life***

In Cöthen Bach’s prime responsibility was to conduct the court orchestra, in which the prince himself participated. In 1720 Bach’s wife died, leaving him a widower with seven children. Late in 1721 he married Anna Magdalena Wülken, a twenty-year-old



singer. She had to take over the difficult role of wife to a man of genius and also that of mother to his children, the oldest of whom was twelve years old. But she seems to have been equal to both tasks. In addition, during the next twenty years she presented Bach with thirteen more children.

Bach produced his greatest instrumental works during the Cöthen period. The other Cöthen musicians were all skilled performers, and their talent inspired Bach to write special music for them. Bach also wrote his major orchestral works during this period. He wrote many of his keyboard works for the instruction of his own children. However, after Prince Leopold married, he had less time for music, and the court orchestra had less to do. This decrease in importance, plus Bach's concern over his children's education, led him to look for another position in a strong Lutheran area. In 1723 he was named cantor (choir leader) of Leipzig, Germany, to replace the deceased Johann Kuhnau.

The Leipzig committee was reluctant to hire Bach. His reputation was mainly as an organist, not as a composer, and his ability as an organist was not needed since the cantor was not required to play at the services. His duties were primarily to provide choral music (designed for a choir) for two large churches, St. Thomas and St. Nicholas. In addition, special music was required on certain days of the church year and for other occasions such as funerals. Bach promised to perform not only the musical duties but also other responsibilities in connection with the St. Thomas School, such as teaching classes in music, giving private singing lessons, and even teaching Latin. While in Leipzig Bach composed the bulk of his choral music.

### Later years

Bach gradually lost his eyesight during his final years, and he was totally blind the last year of his life. A few days before his death he read parts of the hymn *Vor deinen Thron tret' ich allhier* (Before Thy Throne I Stand) for his son-in-law to write down. Following a stroke and a high fever, Bach died on July 28, 1750. Four of his sons carried on the musical tradition of the Bach family. For Bach writing music was an expression of faith. Every composition was "in the name of Jesus" and "to the glory of God alone." His influence on music is well stated in the words of Johannes Brahms (1833–1897): "Study Bach: there you will find everything."

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## FRANCIS BACON

**Born:** October 28, 1909

**Dublin, Ireland**

**Died:** April 28, 1992

**Madrid, Spain**

*English painter and artist*



Francis Bacon.

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

The English artist Francis Bacon was one of the most powerful and original figure painters in the twentieth century. He was particularly noted for the obsessive intensity of his work.

### *Early life*

Francis Bacon was born in Dublin, Ireland, on October 28, 1909, to English parents. Raised with three siblings, Francis Bacon is a descendant of the sixteenth-century statesman and essayist of the same name. He left home at the age of sixteen and spent two years in Berlin, Germany, and Paris, France. In Paris he saw an art exhibit

by the painter Pablo Picasso (1881–1973). Though he had never taken an art class, Bacon began painting with watercolors. He then settled in London, England, with the intention of establishing himself as an interior decorator and furniture designer. However, he soon turned to painting exclusively.

Bacon began oil painting in 1929. The few early paintings that survive (he destroyed most of them) show that he began as a late cubist (a twentieth-century movement that used geometric shapes). By 1932 he turned to a form of surrealism (using fantastic imagery of the subconscious) based partly on Pablo Picasso's works from about 1925 to 1928. Bacon began to draw attention in 1933 with his work *Crucifixion*, and the same year he took part in exhibitions in London.

### *Gains prominence after World War II*

Bacon exhibited very rarely until 1945. It was only after World War II (1939–45; a war in which British, French, Soviet, and U.S. forces fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan) that his paintings became known outside his immediate circle of friends. At this time he also began to paint the human figure. The pictures that made his reputation are of such subjects as a melting head in front of a curtain and a screaming figure crouching under an umbrella. These extremely original works are impressive not only as powerful expressions of pain, but also for the magnificence of their presentation and professional quality.

By the early 1950s Bacon had developed a more direct treatment of the human figure, working almost always from photographs rather than from real life. Images taken from newspaper clippings or from the photographs

of humans and animals by the nineteenth-century photographer Eadweard Muybridge were sometimes combined with images from the well-recognized paintings of the old masters. For instance, a series of paintings inspired by the portrait of Pope Innocent X by the Spanish painter Diego Velázquez (1599–1660) also uses a screaming face and eyeglasses that came from a close-up of a wounded nurse in Sergei Eisenstein's film *The Battleship Potemkin*. Such a combination of images drawn from completely unrelated sources is characteristic of Bacon's work.

### **Major themes and subjects**

From the 1950s through the end of Bacon's painting career and life in the early 1990s, the consistent theme of his work was the isolation and pain of the individual, with a single figure (usually male) seated or standing in a small, windowless interior, as if confined in a private hell. His subjects were artists, friends, lovers, and even himself. His painting technique consisted of using rags, his hands, and dust along with paint and brush.

Bacon consistently denied that his paintings were used to explain his own life. The facts of his life, however, have tempted art critics and historians to draw links between his personal life and the subject matter of his paintings. One of the great tragedies of his life was the death of his longtime lover George Dyer, who apparently killed himself. Dyer's death occurred just before the opening of Bacon's major retrospective (a collection of the artist's work) in Paris, France, in 1971. Bacon's famous and moving *Triptych* (1973) was a three-paneled work of his dying friend hunched over a toilet, shadowed in a door frame and vomiting into a sink.

In a period dominated by abstract art, Bacon stood out as one of the few great representatives of the figure-painting tradition. During the last decade of his life major retrospective exhibitions were mounted at such sites as the Marlborough Gallery in New York, New York, in 1984, Moscow, Russia, in 1989, and the Museum of Modern Art in New York City in 1990. Bacon died of heart failure in Madrid, Spain, on April 28, 1992.

The year 1999 saw the release of the book *Francis Bacon: A Retrospective*, which analyzed the work of the artist. The book coincided with a national tour of many of Bacon's paintings.

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## ROGER BACON

**Born:** c. 1214

**Ilchester, Somerset, England**

**Died:** c. 1292

**Oxford, England**

*English philosopher*



Roger Bacon.

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**T**he medieval English philosopher Roger Bacon insisted on the importance of a so-called science of experience. In this respect he is often thought of as a forerunner of modern science. Little is known for certain about the details of Roger Bacon's life or about the chronology of and inspiration for his major works.

#### *Childhood, education, and university life*

It appears that Bacon was born in Ilchester, Somerset, England. He was born into a noble family, although not a major one. In his youth he studied the works of the ancient Greeks as well as arithmetic, geometry,

astronomy, and music. At thirteen years old he entered Oxford University, where he spent the next eight years. He eventually received an advanced arts degree.

In the 1240s, perhaps in the early years of the decade, Bacon lectured at the University of Paris, France, on the works of the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle (c. 384–c. 322 B.C.E.). During this period he also wrote three works on logic, or the study of how to reason correctly. Within relatively few years there were three important events in Bacon's life: his return to England from France, the awakening of his scientific interests, and his entry into the Franciscan order, the Christian group founded by St. Francis of Assisi (1182–1226).

#### *A universal science*

Early on Bacon had the idea for a universal, or general, science that would promote the spread of Christianity, prolong life, aid health, and unite theology (the study of God and His ways) and the science of experience. He praised science as being “most beautiful and most useful.” Bacon had other reasons for urging Christians to take up a science of experience. At the time there were many who believed that a struggle with the antichrist (or great evildoer whose arrival on Earth was predicted in the Bible) was near at hand. Bacon saw a science of experience as a Christian weapon for the fight.

It is quite likely that Bacon became a Franciscan in 1252. By Bacon's time the work begun by St. Francis had posed problems for his followers. Franciscans were required to take a vow of poverty, but their work had grown to such size and importance that it was impossible to continue it unless the order

owned property and other possessions. The owning of property by the Franciscan order, however, was seriously questioned by a group of Franciscans. Bacon joined this group.

### **His works**

About 1257 Bacon was taken from England to France and, for unknown reasons, underwent some kind of confinement, perhaps even an imprisonment, in a French monastery. One theory is that people questioned him because of his scientific interests, but it is more likely that his views on Franciscan life proved unpopular with some Franciscans in England.

During this period of confinement Bacon wrote his greatest works: *Opus majus* (major work), *Opus minus* (minor work), and *Opus tertium* (third work). Disagreements among scholars concerning the order and purposes of these works show once again the many unknowns concerning Bacon's life. In *Opus majus* he made use of scientific materials already written, added new material, and included a section on moral theory. With respect to the sciences, the overall tone of *Opus majus* is a plea, attempting to persuade the pope (the head of the Catholic Church) about the importance of experimental knowledge.

After the three works, Bacon wrote a great part of *Communium naturalium* (general principles of natural philosophy), one of his finest works. In 1272 he published another book on the study of philosophy in which the old, angry, argumentative Bacon reemerges. In it he claimed to see the presence of the antichrist in the then-warring Christian groups, and he took in general the extreme view of Franciscan life. It is also pos-

sible that an imprisonment in the final years of his life stems from this book.

### **Science's early friend**

In many ways Bacon was ahead of his time. His works mention flying machines, self-driven boats, and an "instrument small in size, which can raise and lower things of almost infinite weight." He studied the heavens. He seems to have studied the refraction (bending) of light under experimental conditions. However, in his so-called science of experience he did not make any known advances in what is today called physics, nor did he make any known practical inventions. There is no evidence that Bacon made any important contribution to science, but there is much evidence that he was instead a reader, writer, and champion of science.

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**JOAN  
BAEZ**

**Born:** January 9, 1941

**Staten Island, New York**

*American musician, singer, and activist*

American folk singer Joan Baez is recognized for her nonviolent, anti-establishment (against a nation's political and economic structure), and anti-war positions. She has used her singing and speaking talents to criticize violations of human rights in a number of countries.

### Early life

Joan Baez was born on January 9, 1941, in Staten Island, New York. Her father, Albert V. Baez, was a physicist who came to the United States from Mexico at a very early age, and her mother was of western European descent. Joan inherited her father's dark complexion, and the occasional racial prejudice (hatred of a race) she suffered as a child probably led to her later involvement in the civil rights movement, a movement that called for equal rights for all races. Although as an adult she claimed not to share her parents' strict religious faith, it undoubtedly contributed to what some called her keen "social conscience."

Baez was exposed to an intellectual atmosphere with classical music during her childhood, but rejected piano lessons in favor of the guitar and rock and roll. Her father's research and teaching positions took the family to various American and foreign cities. When Joan was ten, she spent a year in Iraq with her family. There she was exposed to the harsh and intensely poor conditions of the Iraqi people, something that undoubtedly had an affect on her later career as a singer and activist. Baez went on to attend high school in Palo Alto, California, where she excelled in music more than in academic subjects. Shortly after her high school graduation in 1958, her family moved to Boston,

Massachusetts, where Baez's interest in folk music surfaced after visiting a coffee shop where amateur folk singers performed.

### *From Boston coffeehouses to Newport, Rhode Island*

Baez briefly attended Boston University, where she made friends with several semi-professional folk singers from whom she learned much about the art. In addition to simple folk songs, she began to sing Anglo American ballads, blues, spirituals, and songs from various countries. As she worked to develop her technique and range of songs, Baez began to perform professionally in Boston coffeehouses and quickly became a favorite of Harvard University students. She was also noticed by other folk singers, including Harry Belafonte (1927–), who offered her a job with his singing group.

In the summer of 1959 Baez was invited to sing at the Newport Folk Festival in Rhode Island. This performance made her a star—especially to young people—and led to friendships with other important folk singers such as the Seeger family and Odetta. Although the performance brought her offers to make recordings and concert tours, she decided to resume her Boston coffee shop appearances.

After Baez's second Newport appearance in 1960, she made her first album for Vanguard Records. Simply labeled *Joan Baez*, it was an immediate success. She was then such a "hot item" that she could choose her own songs and prop designs for her performances. In the following years Baez sang to capacity crowds on American college campuses and concert halls and on several foreign tours. Her eight gold albums and one gold single demonstrated her popularity as a singer.

### *Politics a source of controversy*

While many critics agreed that Baez's untrained singing voice was unusually haunting, beautiful, and very soothing, they saw her spoken words, lifestyle, and actions as conflicting and sometimes anti-American. In the changing world of the 1960s, Baez became a center of controversy (open to dispute) when she used her singing and speaking talents to urge nonpayment of taxes used for war purposes and to urge men to resist the draft during the Vietnam War (1965–73; when the United States aided South Vietnam's fight against North Vietnam). She helped block induction centers (which brought in new recruits) and was twice arrested for such violations of the law.

Baez was married to writer and activist David Harris in March 1968. She was pregnant with their son, Gabriel, in April 1969, and three months later she saw her husband arrested for refusing induction into the military forces. He spent the next twenty months in a federal prison in Texas.

In the early 1970s Baez began to speak with greater harshness. By the end of the decade she had offended dozens of her former peace-activist allies—such as Jane Fonda (1937–) and attorney William Kunstler—with her views on postwar Vietnam. As she had done in the case of Chile and Argentina (without public outcries from former associates), Baez called for human rights to be extended to those centers in the war-torn country.

### *Baez's career through the 1980s and 1990s*

In later years Baez's singing career faltered despite various attempts to revive it. Her 1985 effort featured a more conventional



*Joan Baez.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

hairstyle and attire. Her supporters believed she would regain her prominence in the entertainment industry because her voice, although deeper, had the same qualities that made her so successful earlier. Meanwhile, she was quite busy throughout the world as the head of the Humanitas International Human Rights Committee, which concentrated on distracting (in any possible nonviolent way) those whom it believed exercised unauthorized power.

Baez has continued to make music and to influence younger performers. In 1987 Baez released *Recently*, her first studio solo album in eight years. She was nominated for a 1988 Best

Contemporary Folk Recording Grammy Award for "Asimbonanga," a song from the album. Also in 1988 Baez recorded *Diamonds and Rust in the Bullring* in Bilbao, Spain. The album was released the following April. In 1990 Baez toured with the Indigo Girls and the threesome were recorded for a Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) video presentation, "Joan Baez In Concert." In 1993 two more Baez recordings were released: *Play Me Backwards*, consisting of new material; and *Rare, Live & Classic*, a collection of her career from 1958 to 1989, featuring twenty-two previously unreleased tracks. Baez released *Gone from Danger* in 1997 and *Farewell Angelina* in 2002.

The singer's interest in politics and human rights has continued as well. In 1993 she was invited by Refugees International to travel to Bosnia-Herzegovina in order to help bring attention to the suffering there. In September of that same year Baez became the first major artist to perform in a professional concert on Alcatraz Island (the former Federal Penitentiary) in San Francisco, California. It was a benefit performance for her sister Mimi Farina's organization, Bread & Roses. She returned to the island for a second benefit in 1996 along with the Indigo Girls and Dar Williams. She has also supported the gay and lesbian cause. In 1995 she joined Janis Ian in a performance at the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force's Fight the Right fundraising event in San Francisco.

In 2001 Farrar, Straus, and Giroux released *Positively Fourth Street* by David Hajdu. The book is an intimate portrait that explores the relationships between Joan, Mimi Farina, Richard Farina, and fellow folkster Bob Dylan (1941–) during New York City's folk scene of the early 1960s.

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## F. LEE BAILEY

**Born:** June 10, 1933

**Waltham, Massachusetts**

*American attorney and author*

**F**. Lee Bailey is a "superstar" lawyer and best-selling author. Bailey has been involved in a number of well-known cases, such as the trials of Patty Hearst, the Boston Strangler, and O. J. Simpson. Controversy has followed him throughout his career, often due to his willingness and ability to promote himself.

### **Early life and education**

Francis Lee Bailey was born on June 10, 1933, in Waltham, Massachusetts. His mother was a teacher and nursery school director, and his father worked in newspaper advertising. Bailey grew up with two siblings. His parents divorced when he was ten years old. After attending Kimball Union Academy in New Hampshire, he entered Harvard University. An outstanding student, he nonetheless dropped out of Harvard to serve as a fighter pilot in the U.S. Marine Corps. Flying would be a lifelong passion. Bailey then went



to law school at Boston University. Shortly after graduating in 1960, he married Florence Gott, but the two divorced in 1961.

### *The beginnings of stardom*

Bailey was first noticed when he defended a doctor, George Elderly, who was charged with murdering his wife. The doctor—whose story served as the basis for the television series and film *The Fugitive*—was found not guilty. Soon thereafter, another doctor, Samuel H. Sheppard, who was also accused of murdering his wife, was found not guilty because of Bailey's defense. Bailey was on his way to stardom.

This new standout lawyer did not shy away from the spotlight. Indeed, Bailey drew criticism for appearing on television talk shows and discussing various cases. The Supreme Court of New Jersey even disallowed him from practicing in that state for a year. His second wife and former secretary, Froma, stood by while he was written about in magazines much the way a film star might be. He divorced Froma in 1972 and married Lynda Hart that same year.

Again Bailey used his stardom to further his career. He wrote *The Defense Never Rests* and *For the Defense*, as well as legal textbooks. Though Bailey lost his defense of Albert DeSalvo, a mental patient who admitted to being the Boston Strangler—a serial killer who had murdered thirteen women—the case did not damage Bailey's reputation.

### *Questions arise*

The same could not be said, however, for the defense Bailey provided for Patty Hearst. The daughter of a publishing giant,



F. Lee Bailey.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Hearst claimed to have been kidnapped by a terrorist organization (an organization that achieves its ends by using violence) and forced to participate in a series of bank robberies. Bailey conducted a spirited defense, but Hearst was found guilty. She served twenty-two months in prison and eventually hired another lawyer, hoping for a second trial on the grounds that Bailey had not done his job well. Bailey's loss marked a turning point in the public's judgment of his courtroom abilities.

Bailey divorced Hart in 1980, then waited a full five years before getting married again, this time to flight attendant Patricia

Shiers. He continued to publish books, make speeches for \$10,000 each, and speak regularly for a cause he cared a lot about: the necessity of reducing lawsuits.

Another strike against Bailey came when he represented the families of the passengers who had been on Korean Airlines flight 007, which was shot down over the Soviet Union in 1983. Though he made several public statements about his commitment to the case, his law firm put in a much smaller number of hours than did the two other law firms working on it.

In the mid-1990s Bailey was asked to join the defense team of O. J. Simpson, the football star turned actor who was accused (and later found not guilty) of murdering his ex-wife Nicole and her friend Ronald Goldman in Los Angeles, California. Bailey's questioning of Los Angeles police detective Mark Fuhrman was one of the most dramatic moments of the trial. Bailey, perhaps not surprisingly, gave himself high marks. "Other lawyers whom I respect told me that given what I had to work with, it was good." However, Edward Felsenthal of the *Wall Street Journal* said that "Americans who recently named F. Lee Bailey the most admired lawyer in the country might feel differently now that they have actually watched him in action in the O.J. Simpson case."

### **More troubles**

In 1996 Bailey's reputation was questioned again. He was jailed after failing to hand over illegally obtained shares of stock and money from a former drug-dealer client to a court. Bailey was taken to court again in 1999 for refusing to give up \$2 million from a jailed client. In 2001 the state of Florida prohibited Bailey from practicing law there.

In a television appearance Bailey argued that a person "in the business of defending criminal cases is going to live in controversy all of his or her life." Whether or not this is generally true, it certainly has been true for him. At the same time he has been a trail-blazer for the superstar lawyers who have followed him.

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## JOSEPHINE BAKER

**Born:** June 3, 1906

**St. Louis, Missouri**

**Died:** April 12, 1975

**Paris, France**

*African American dancer and singer*

Josephine Baker was an African American dancer and singer who lived in Paris, France, and was regarded as one of the most famous Americans living overseas.

### **Becoming Josephine Baker**

Josephine Baker was born in a poor, black ghetto of St. Louis, Missouri, on June 3, 1906, to twenty-one-year-old Carrie MacDonald. Her mother hoped to be a music hall dancer but was forced to make a living as a

laundress. Olive-skinned Eddie Carson, her father, was a drummer for vaudeville shows (theater that used a wide variety of acts) and was not seen much by his daughter. At the age of eight Josephine was hired out to a white woman as a maid. She was forced to sleep in the coal cellar with a pet dog and was scalded on the hands when she used too much soap in the laundry. At the age of ten she returned to school. Josephine witnessed the cruel East St. Louis race riot of 1917. She left the St. Louis area three years later.

From watching the dancers in a local vaudeville house, at age sixteen Josephine “graduated” to dancing in a touring show based in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, where her grandmother lived. She had already been married twice: to Willie Wells (for a few weeks in 1919), and to Will Baker (for a short time in 1921). She took her second husband’s name as her own—Josephine Baker.

In August 1922 Baker joined the chorus line of the touring show *Shuffle Along* in Boston, Massachusetts. Afterwards Baker was in New York City for the *Chocolate Dandies* (at the Cotton Club) and the floorshow at the Plantation Club in Harlem with Ethel Waters (c. 1900–1977). She drew the attention of the audience by clowning, mugging, and improvising. With her long legs, slim figure, and comic presence, her special style as an entertainer began to take shape.

### ***Baker goes to Paris***

Baker went to Paris, France, for a top salary of \$250 a week (more than twice what she was paid in New York) to dance at the Théâtre des Champs Élysées as a variety dancer in *La Revue Nègre*. With other African Americans, including jazz star Sidney Bechet,

she introduced “le jazz hot” and went on to international fame on the wave of French intoxication for American jazz and exotic nudity. She quickly became the favorite of artists and left-intellectuals such as painter Pablo Picasso (1881–1973), poet E. E. Cummings (1894–1962), playwright Jean Cocteau (1889–1963), and writer Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961).

Baker survived a lawsuit regarding her abandoning *Le Revue Nègre* for a star billing at the Folies-Bergère in 1926. (The legal case was one of many in her life.) She was twenty when she was a sensation in the “jungle”

banana dance: naked but for a string of rubber bananas around her waist. Soon banana-clad Josephine dolls were selling like hot cakes. Also, in 1926, she recorded her throaty voice for the first time. Magazine covers and posters added to her fame, and by 1936 Baker was one of the highest paid performers in the world.

### **A heroine in World War II**

Baker married Jean Lion, a French industrialist, but the two were divorced by 1940, during the early months of World War II (1939–45; a war in which German-led forces fought against the United States and European nations). When Germany occupied Belgium, Baker became a Red Cross nurse, watching over refugees, or those forced to flee their own countries. When Germany finally occupied France itself, she worked for the French Resistance (the secret army that fought against the occupying German forces) as an underground courier, transmitting information “pinned inside her underwear” to Captain Jacques Abtey.

After spending years avoiding the United States, Baker returned in August 1963 to attend the civil rights march in Washington, D.C., a march that pushed for equal rights among all races. In October of that year she made a trip to Manhattan to sing, dance, and “fight bias,” as *The New York Times* said. She flaunted her age: she would say she was sixty when she was really fifty-seven, but she seemed ageless to reporters.

Baker died in her sleep of a stroke on April 12, 1975. The Roman Catholic funeral service was held at the Church of the Madeleine in Paris, which was, after all, her true home. Josephine Baker will forever be

remembered as someone who pulled herself out of poverty and the trauma of humiliation and made herself an international star, principally due to her love of dancing.

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## GEORGE BALANCHINE

**Born:** January 22, 1904

**St. Petersburg, Russia**

**Died:** April 30, 1983

**New York, New York**

*Russian-born American choreographer*

**T**he Russian-born American choreographer George Balanchine formed and established the classical style (relating to music in the European tradition) of ballet in America.

### **Early life**

George Balanchine was born Georgi Melitonovitch Balanchivadze in St. Petersburg, Russia, on January 22, 1904, the son of Meliton and Maria (Vassiliev) Balanchivadze. His father was a composer. Balanchine studied the piano as a child and considered a career in the

military, which his mother encouraged. However, at the age of ten, he entered the Imperial Ballet School, where he learned the precise and athletic Russian dancing style.

After the Russian Revolution of 1917 (the rebellion of the Russian people against the ruler of Russia), Balanchine continued his training in a new government theater. In 1921 he entered the St. Petersburg Conservatory of Music to study piano while continuing work in ballet at the State Academy of Opera and Ballet. He used a group of dancers from the school to present his earliest choreographed works. One of the students was Tamara Gevergeyeva, whom Balanchine married in 1922. She was the first of his four wives, all of whom were dancers. In 1924, when the group traveled to Europe to perform as the Soviet State Dancers, Balanchine refused to return to the Soviet Union.

The manager of the Ballets Russes, Sergei Diaghilev (1872–1929), discovered Balanchine in 1925 in Paris, France. When Diaghilev's most famous choreographer, Nijinska, left the group, Balanchine took her place. At the age of twenty-one he became the main choreographer of the most famous ballet company (a group of ballet dancers who perform together) in the world. Balanchine did ten ballets for Diaghilev, and it was Diaghilev who changed the Russian's name to Balanchine. When Diaghilev died and the company broke up in 1929, Balanchine moved from one company to another until, in 1933, he formed his own company, Les Ballets.

### **Work in America**

Also in 1933 Balanchine met Lincoln Kirstein, a young, rich American, who invited him to head the new School of Amer-



*George Balanchine.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

ican Ballet in New York City. With the School of American Ballet and later with the New York City Ballet, Balanchine established himself as one of the world's leading classical choreographers. Almost single-handedly he brought standards of excellence and quality performance to the American ballet, which up to that point had been merely a weak copy of the great European companies.

In 1934 the American Ballet Company became the resident company at the Metropolitan Opera in New York. Audiences were treated to three new Balanchine ballets, *Apollo*, *The Card Party*, and *The Fairy's Kiss*—works that revolutionized American classical

ballet style. Balanchine's style proved a bit too daring for the Metropolitan, leading to a conflict that ended the working relationship in 1938. Over the next several years he worked on Broadway shows and films and two ballets, *Ballet Imperial* and *Concerto Barocco*, which were created in 1941 for the American Ballet Caravan, a touring group.

In 1946, following Kirstein's return from service in World War II (1939–45), he and Balanchine established a new company, the Ballet Society. The performance of Balanchine's *Orpheus* was so successful that his company was invited to establish permanent residence at the New York City Center. It did so and was renamed the New York City Ballet. Finally Balanchine had a school, a company, and a permanent theater. He developed the New York City Ballet into the leading classical company in America—and, to some critics, in the world. Here he created some of his most enduring works, including his *Nutcracker* and *Agon*.

### Keys to his success

Balanchine's choreography was not dependent on the ballerina's skills, the plot, or the sets, but on pure dance. The drama was in the dance, and movement was solely related to the music. For Balanchine the movement of the body alone created artistic excitement. He placed great importance on balance, control, precision, and ease of movement. He rejected the traditional sweet style of romantic ballet, as well as the more acrobatic style of theatrical ballet, in favor of a style that was stripped to its essentials—motion, movement, and music. His dancers became instruments of the choreographer, whose ideas and designs came from the music itself.

Balanchine died in New York City on April 30, 1983. Summing up his career in the *New York Times*, Anna Kisselgoff said, "More than anyone else, he elevated choreography in ballet to an independent art. In an age when ballet had been dependent on a synthesis (combination) of spectacle, storytelling, décor, mime, acting and music, and only partly on dancing, George Balanchine insisted that the dance element come first."

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## JAMES BALDWIN

**Born:** August 2, 1924

**New York, New York**

**Died:** November 30, 1987

**Saint-Paul-de-Vance, France**

*African American author and playwright*

The author James Baldwin achieved international recognition for his expressions of African American life in the United States. During the 1960s he was one of the most outspoken leaders of the civil rights movement.

### Early life

James Arthur Baldwin, the son of Berdis Jones Baldwin and the stepson of David Baldwin, was born in Harlem, New York City, on August 2, 1924. He was the oldest of nine children and from an early age loved to read. His father was a preacher in the Pentecostal church, and at the age of fourteen Baldwin also became a preacher. At eighteen he graduated from DeWitt Clinton High School, where he had written for a magazine put out by the school. Baldwin then realized that he wanted to write for a living.

In 1944 Baldwin met another writer named Richard Wright (1908–1960), who helped Baldwin secure a fellowship (a writing award) that provided him with enough money to devote all of his time to literature. By 1948 Baldwin had decided that he could get more writing done in a place where there was less prejudice, and he went to live and work in Europe with money from another fellowship. While overseas Baldwin completed the books *Go Tell It on the Mountain* (1953), *Notes of a Native Son* (1955), and *Giovanni's Room* (1956).

### Spokesperson for civil rights movement

Returning to the United States after nine years overseas, Baldwin became known as the leading spokesperson among writers for the civil rights of African Americans. He gave popular lectures on the subject, and he quickly discovered that social conditions for African Americans had become even worse while he was abroad. As the 1960s began—and violence in the South increased—Baldwin grew increasingly angry. He responded with three powerful books of essays: *Nobody Knows My Name* (1961); *The Fire Next Time* (1963), in

which he predicts future outbursts of black anger; and *More Notes of a Native Son*. These works were accompanied by *Another Country* (1962), his third novel. *Going to Meet the Man* (1965) is a group of short stories from the same period. During this time Baldwin's descriptions of Richard Avedon's photography were published under the title *Nothing Personal* (1964). Four years later came another novel, *Tell Me How Long the Train's Been Gone*.

In addition, the mid-1960s saw Baldwin's two published plays produced on Broadway. *The Amen Corner*, first staged in Washington, D.C., in 1955, was presented at New York City's Ethel Barrymore Theatre in April 1965.

Similar in tone to *Go Tell It on the Mountain*, it describes the strong religious feeling of the Pentecostal church. *Blues for Mr. Charlie*, which premiered at Broadway's ANTA Theatre in April 1964, is based on the case of Emmett Till, a fourteen-year-old African American from Chicago who was murdered by white people in Mississippi in 1955.

The assassinations of three of Baldwin's friends—civil rights marcher Medgar Evers (1926–1963), the Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr. (1929–1968), and the black Muslim leader Malcolm X (1925–1965)—destroyed any hopes Baldwin had that problems between the races would be solved in the United States, and he returned to France in the early 1970s. His later works of fiction include *If Beale Street Could Talk* (1974) and *Just Above My Head* (1979). Nonfiction writings of this period include: *No Name in the Street* (1972); *The Devil Finds Work* (1976), an examination of African Americans in the movie industry; and *The Evidence of Things Not Seen* (1985), a discussion of issues of race surrounding the child murders in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1979 and 1980. A volume of poetry, *Jimmy's Blues*, was issued in 1985.

### **Literary achievement**

Baldwin's greatest achievement as a writer was his ability to address American race relations by discussing the effects of racism (unequal treatment based on race) on the mind. In his essays and fiction he considered the point of view of both the offender and the victim. He suggested that all people, not just one group of people, suffer in a racist climate. Baldwin's fiction and plays also explore the burdens society places on individuals. Two of his best-known works, the

novel *Go Tell It on the Mountain* and the play *The Amen Corner*, were inspired by his years with the Pentecostal church in Harlem. In *Go Tell It on the Mountain*, for instance, a teenage boy struggles with a strict stepfather and experiences a religious awakening. Love in all of its forms became a key ingredient in Baldwin's writing. Later Baldwin novels deal honestly with homosexuality (sexual desire for members of the same sex) and love affairs between members of different races.

Baldwin's writing is noted for its beauty and power. His language seems purposely chosen to shock and shake the reader into a concerned state of action. His major themes are repeated: the terrible pull of love and hate between black and white Americans; the conflicts between guilt or shame and sexual freedom; the gift of sharing and extending love; and the charm of goodness versus evil. He describes the rewards of artistic achievement among the problems of modern life, including racism, industrialism (the influence of large corporations on everyday life), materialism (the pursuit of material wealth above all else), and a global power struggle. Everything that lessens or harms the human spirit is strongly attacked.

### **Final years**

Baldwin remained overseas much of the last fifteen years of his life, but he never gave up his American citizenship. The citizens of France came to consider Baldwin one of their own, and in 1986 he was given one of the country's highest honors when he was named Commander of the Legion of Honor. He died of stomach cancer on November 30, 1987, in Saint-Paul-de-Vence, France, but he was buried in Harlem. One of his last works to



see publication during his lifetime was a collection of essays called *The Price of the Ticket: Collected Nonfiction, 1948–1985*.

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## LUCILLE BALL

**Born:** August 6, 1911

**Jamestown, New York**

**Died:** April 26, 1989

**Los Angeles, California**

*American actress and comedienne*

The face of comedienne Lucille Ball, immortalized as Lucy Ricardo on the television program *I Love Lucy*, is said to have been seen by more people worldwide than any other. Known as “Lucy” to generations of television viewers who delighted at her rubber-faced antics and zany impersonations, she was a shrewd businesswoman, serious actress, and Broadway star as well.

### A struggling star

Born Lucille Desiree Ball on August 6, 1911, she and her mother, DeDe, made their

home with her grandparents in Celoron, outside Jamestown, New York. Her father died in 1915 of typhoid fever, a sometimes deadly disease that spreads through milk or water. Along with her brother, Lucille was then raised by her mother and grandparents, who took her to the theater and encouraged her to take part in her school plays.

Lucy’s mother also strongly encouraged her daughter’s love for the theater. The two were close, and DeDe Ball’s laugh can be heard on almost every *I Love Lucy* sound track. But from Lucy’s first unsuccessful foray to New York, New York, where she lost a chorus part in the musical *Stepping Stones*, through her days in Hollywood, California, as “Queen of the Bs” (grade B movies were known for their lower production values), the road to *I Love Lucy* was not an easy one.

In 1926 Lucy enrolled at the John Murray Anderson/Robert Milton School of Theater and Dance in New York. Her participation there, unlike that of star student Bette Davis (1908–1989), was a terrible failure. The school’s owner even wrote to tell Lucy’s mother that she was wasting her money. Lucy went back to high school in Celoron.

After a brief rest, Lucy returned to New York City with the stage name Diane Belmont. She was chosen to appear in Earl Carroll’s *Vanities*, for the third road company of Ziegfeld’s *Rio Rita*, and for *Step Lively*, but none of these performances materialized. She then found employment at a Rexall drugstore on Broadway and later she worked in Hattie Carnegie’s elegant dress salon, while also working as a model. Lucille Ball’s striking beauty always set her apart from other comedienues. At the age of seventeen, Lucy was stricken with rheumatoid arthritis, a severe swelling of the joints,



Lucille Ball.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

and returned to Celoron yet again, where her mother nursed her through an almost three-year bout with the illness.

### **Returning to New York**

Determined, Ball found more success in New York the next time, when she became the Chesterfield Cigarette Girl. In 1933 she was cast as a last-minute replacement for one of the twelve Goldwyn girls in the Eddie Canter movie *Roman Scandals*, directed by Busby Berkeley. (Ball's first on-screen appearance was actually a walk-on in the 1933 *Broadway Thru a Keyhole*.) During the filming, when Ball volunteered to take a pie in

the face, the legendary Berkeley is said to have commented, "Get that girl's name. That's the one who will make it."

Favorable press from Ball's first speaking role in 1935 and the second lead in *That Girl from Paris* (1936) helped win her a major part in the Broadway musical *Hey Diddle Diddle*, but the project was dropped after the premature death of the male lead. It would take roughly another fifteen years for Ball to gain stardom.

Ball worked with many comic "greats," including the Three Stooges, the Marx Brothers, Laurel and Hardy, and Buster Keaton (1895–1966), with whom she developed her extraordinary skill in the handling of props. She gave a solid performance as a rising actress in *Stage Door* (1937), and earned praise from critic James Agee for her portrayal of a bitter, handicapped nightclub singer in *The Big Street* (1942).

### **Lucy goes red**

Ball first acquired her flaming red hair in 1943, when Metro Goldwyn Mayer (MGM) officials signed her to appear opposite Red Skelton in Cole Porter's (1891–1964) *DuBarry Was a Lady*. (Throughout the years, rumors flew as to the color's origin, including one that Ball decided upon the dye job in an effort to somehow rival actress Betty Grable.)

It was on the set of a small film, *Dance, Girl, Dance*, that Lucille Ball first met her future husband, Cuban bandleader Desi Arnaz (1917–1986). Married in 1940, they were separated for much of the first decade of their marriage because of Desi's travels. The union, also plagued by Arnaz's work schedule, alcohol abuse, and outside affairs, dissolved in 1960.

## I Love Lucy

Determined to work together and to save their marriage, Ball and Arnaz developed a television pilot (one show developed to sell to studios). Studio executives were not ready. The duo was forced to take their “act” on the road to prove its potential and to borrow five thousand dollars to found Desilu Productions. (After buying out Arnaz’s share and changing the corporation’s name, Ball eventually sold it to Gulf Western for \$18 million.) It worked, and *I Love Lucy* premiered on October 15, 1951.

Within six months the show was rated number one. It ran six seasons in its original format and then evolved into hour-long specials. It won over twenty awards, among them five Emmys, the highest award for television programming.

The characters Lucy and Ricky Ricardo became household words, with William Frawley (1887–1966) and Vivian Vance (1909–1979) superbly cast as long-suffering neighbors Fred and Ethel Mertz. More viewers tuned in for the television birth of “Little Ricky” Ricardo than for President Dwight D. Eisenhower’s (1890–1969) inauguration (swearing in as president). The show was the first in television history to claim viewing in more than ten million homes. It was filmed before a studio audience and helped revolutionize television production by using three cameras.

## Lucy’s legacy

The Lucy Ricardo character may be viewed as a downtrodden housewife, but compared to other situation comedy wives of television’s “golden years,” she was free of regular household duties. The show’s prem-

ise was her desire to share the showbiz limelight with her performer husband and to leave the pots and pans behind. Later series featured Ball as a single mother and as a working woman “up against” her boss.

Following her retirement from prime time in 1974 Ball continued to make many guest appearances on television. Broadway saw her starring in *Mame* (1974), a role with which she identified. (Her other Broadway appearance after her career had “taken off” was in *Wildcat* in 1960.) Her last serious role was that of a bag lady in the 1983 made-for-television movie *Stone Pillow*.

Ball was married to comic Gary Morton from 1961 until the time of her death on April 26, 1989, eight days after open-heart surgery. She was survived by her husband, her two children by Arnaz, Luci and Desi Jr., and millions of fans who continue to watch her in reruns of *I Love Lucy*.

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## DAVID BALTIMORE

**Born:** March 7, 1938

**New York, New York**

*American virologist*

The American virologist David Baltimore was only thirty-seven years old when he received the Nobel Prize in Physiology and Medicine for his significant work in cancer research.

### *Early life and education*

David Baltimore was born on March 7, 1938, in New York, New York, the son of Richard and Gertrude (Lipschitz) Baltimore. As a student Baltimore excelled in math, but quickly developed an intense interest in science. While still a high school student, he spent a summer at the Jackson Memorial Laboratory in Bar Harbor, Maine, experiencing biology under actual research conditions. This so affected him that upon entering Swarthmore College in 1956 he declared himself a biology major. Later he switched to chemistry to complete a research thesis (a research report, usually a requirement for graduation). He graduated in 1960 with a bachelor's degree with high honors. Between his sophomore and junior years at Swarthmore he spent a summer at the Cold Spring Harbor Laboratories. There the influence of George Streisinger led him to molecular biology, a branch of biology concerned with the structure and development of biological systems.

Baltimore spent two years doing graduate work at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in biophysics. He then left for a summer at the Albert Einstein Medical College and to take the animal virus course at Cold Spring Harbor under Richard Franklin and Edward Simon. In 1965 he became a research associate at the Salk Institute of Biological Studies, working in association with Renato Dulbecco. Here he met fellow scien-

tist, Alice S. Huang, and the two were married on October 5, 1968. In 1972 Baltimore was appointed to a full professorship at MIT. In 1974 he joined the staff of the MIT Center for Cancer Research under Salvador Luria.

### *Received recognition*

Baltimore received many awards for his work in cancer research. In 1971 he was the recipient of the Gustav Stern award in virology (the study of viruses), the Warren Triennial Prize, and the Eli Lilly and Co. award in microbiology (a type of biology that investigates microscopic life forms) and immunology (a branch of science that involves the study of the immune system). His most prestigious award came in 1975 when he shared the Nobel Prize in Physiology and Medicine with Howard M. Temin and Renato Dulbecco for research on retroviruses (types of viruses) and cancer. His research demonstrated that the flow of genetic information in such viruses did not have to go from DNA to RNA (deoxyribonucleic acid and ribonucleic acid, living cells that help define an individual's characteristics) but could flow from RNA to DNA, a finding that changed the central belief of molecular biology.

Baltimore's interests later took him further into the study of how viruses reproduce themselves and into work on the immune systems of animals and humans, where he concentrated upon the process of developing antibodies (proteins that help the immune system fight infection). Central to much of this work was DNA technology, in which he maintained an active interest.

Baltimore proved himself an effective educator, conducting seminars with graduate students as well as his peers. He also became suc-

cessful at directing research rather than doing it himself, again working closely with students.

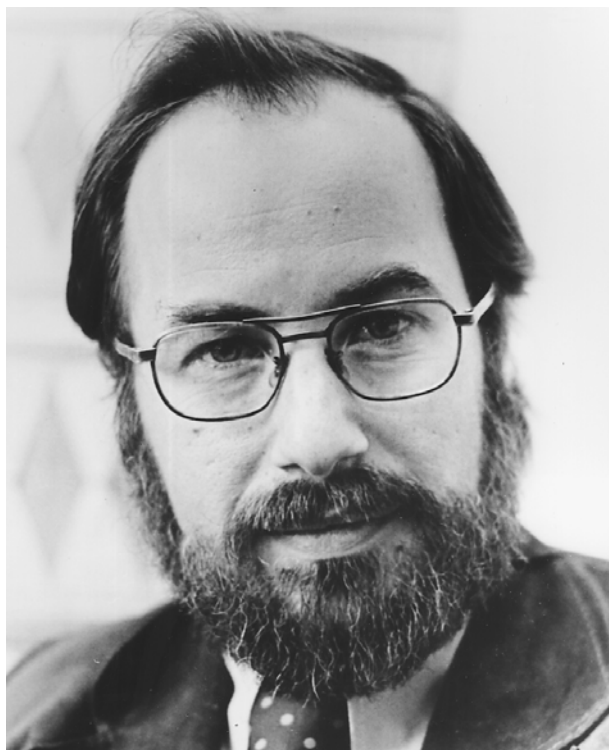
### **Research controversy**

In 1989 Thereza Imanishi-Kari, with whom Baltimore coauthored a 1986 paper on immunology, was charged with falsifying data. Imanishi-Kari, an MIT assistant professor, was cleared in 1996 when a top government ethics panel (a group that judges behavior) declared they found no wrongdoing. Although Baltimore was never connected to any wrongdoing, the incident caused him to withdraw the paper. He was also pressured by colleagues to resign (quit) from his presidency at New York's Rockefeller University, which he did in 1991.

In 1998 Daniel Kevles, a humanities and scientific policy professor at the California Institute of Technology who had followed the case closely, wrote "The Baltimore Case: A Trial of Politics, Science, and Character." Kevles investigated the events and proposed that Imanishi-Kari and Baltimore were unjustly given a bad name.

### **Baltimore Chairs AIDS Vaccine Research Panel**

Baltimore was an early supporter of government-sponsored research on acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS, an incurable virus that attacks the body's immune system). In December 1996 Baltimore became the head of a new AIDS vaccine research panel for the Office of AIDS Research at the National Institute of Health. The panel was formed to step up the search for an AIDS vaccine. He also became the president of the California Institute of Technology in 1997.



*David Baltimore.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

In 2000 President Bill Clinton (1946–) awarded Baltimore the National Medals of Science and Technology, the highest American award for science. He was honored for his discoveries in molecular biology, immunology, and virology.

Baltimore remains active in the scientific community. He is a strong supporter of the highly controversial issue of stem-cell research, a cancer research that takes cells from embryos. Baltimore argues that the study of such cells can greatly increase disease research. "Embryonic stem cells hold remarkable promise for reversing the devastation of human disease," Baltimore wrote in

*The Wall Street Journal* in 2002. "To refuse to allow [the country] to participate in this exciting research would be an affront [an offense] to the American people, especially those who suffer from diseases that could one day be reversed by these miraculous cells."

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## HONORÉ DE BALZAC

**Born:** May 20, 1799

Tours, France

**Died:** August 19, 1850

Paris, France

*French novelist*

**T**he French novelist Honoré de Balzac was the first writer to use fiction to convey the social scene prevailing at a particular period in one country's history.

### **Childhood**

Honoré de Balzac was born in Tours, France, on May 20, 1799, the eldest son of four children of Bernard François and Anne Charlotte Balzac. His mother was thirty-two years younger than his father, and the young Honoré was taken into another home and

cared for until the age of four. His mother saw the birth of her son as her duty and treated him indifferently. Her lack of affection overshadowed his childhood. Sent to boarding school at the age of eight, Honoré sought a place to escape from the fierce school discipline. He found this place in books. But excessive reading eventually brought on a nervous condition, which affected his health, and he was brought home in 1813. The following year his family moved to Paris, France, where he completed his secondary education in law.

### **Adulthood**

Rebelling against his parents, Balzac refused to enter the legal profession and instead declared writing as his profession. Despite disappointment, his father provided a small allowance with the understanding that he had to be financially independent within two years. Working together with friends, Balzac wrote several sensational (superficial, appealing to the senses) novels, none signed with his own name. These books were without literary merit, but he earned his living by them.

Searching for ways to make his fortune more rapidly, Balzac next entered a series of business ventures using borrowed funds. These commercial ventures were also failures, leaving him with very large debts.

Thereafter he published the first novel that he signed with his own name. *Le Dernier Chouan* was a historical novel. Since historical novels were the fashion, the book was well received. But real fame came to him two years later, when he published *La Peau de chagrin*, a fantasy that acts as an allegory (a symbolic representation) of the conflict between the will to enjoy and the will to survive.

### **Author and socialite**

The constant struggle to earn enough to keep his creditors at bay drove him to a timetable of work that eventually ruined his health. He increased his hours from ten to fourteen or even eighteen a day, keeping himself awake with frequent cups of strong coffee. Whenever Balzac took a break from his writing, he would frequent fashionable salons (stylish lounges), where he was well received by female readers.

### **The Human Comedy**

Balzac's lifework consists of a series of some ninety novels and short stories collected under the title *La Comédie humaine* (*The Human Comedy*) in 1841. *The Human Comedy* was subdivided into smaller groups of novels: "Scenes of Private Life," "Scenes of Political Life," "Scenes of Parisian," "Provincial," and "Country Life." There was a separate group of "Philosophical Studies."

The novels were linked by both history and character. This practice enhanced the realistic illusion and also permitted Balzac to develop the psychology (involving the mind) of individual characters more fully than would have been feasible within the limits of a single novel.

### **Social and ethical assumptions**

In a preface to his work in 1842, he defined his function as that of "secretary of French society." Accordingly, every class of people, from aristocrat to peasant, has a place in *The Human Comedy*.

Balzac often assigned the basest (lowest in value or quality) motivations to his characters. He once wrote that the lust for gold and the search for pleasure were the sole



*Honoré de Balzac.*

principles that ruled humanity. The monomaniac—the man obsessed by a purpose or passion, to the point of sacrificing his own comfort and the welfare of his dependents—is constantly encountered in Balzac's more impressive novels.

Balzac was writing in an age when the struggle for existence or social advancement among the poor was at its fiercest. Balzac himself disliked the disorderly individualism that he observed around him. Human nature, in his view, was basically depraved (morally wrong; evil); any machinery—legal, political, or religious—whereby the wickedness of men could be stopped, ought to be repaired and strengthened.

### *Marriage and death*

During his last years Balzac suffered from poor health, and his morale had been weakened by the disappointments he endured in his one great love affair. In 1832 he had received his first letter from Madame Hanska, the wife of a Polish nobleman. Thereafter they kept up a correspondence, interrupted by occasional vacations spent together in different parts of Europe. In 1841 her husband died, but Madame Hanska obstinately refused to marry Balzac. Only when he fell gravely ill did she agree. The wedding took place at her home on March 14, 1850. The long journey back to France took a serious toll on Balzac's health, and he died on August 18, 1850.

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## BENJAMIN BANNEKER

**Born:** November 9, 1731

**Baltimore County, Maryland**

**Died:** October 9, 1806

**Baltimore County, Maryland**

*African American scientist and inventor*

**F**rom 1792 through 1797 Benjamin Banneker, an African American mathematician and amateur astronomer,

calculated ephemerides (tables of the locations of stars and planets) for almanacs that were widely distributed and influential. Because of these works, Banneker became one of the most famous African Americans in early U.S. history.

### *Early life*

On November 9, 1731, Benjamin Banneker was born in Baltimore County, Maryland. He was the son of an African slave named Robert, who had bought his own freedom, and of Mary Banneky, who was the daughter of an Englishwoman and a free African slave. Benjamin grew up on his father's farm with three sisters. After learning to read from his mother and grandmother, Benjamin read the bible to his family in the evening. He attended a nearby Quaker country school for several seasons, but this was the extent of his formal education. He later taught himself literature, history, and mathematics, and he enjoyed reading.

As he grew into an adult, Banneker inherited the farm left to him by his grandparents. He expanded the already successful farm, where he grew tobacco. In 1761, at the age of thirty, Banneker constructed a striking wooden clock without having ever seen a clock before (although he had examined a pocket watch). He painstakingly carved the toothed wheels and gears of the clock out of seasoned wood. The clock operated successfully until the time of his death.

### *Interest in astronomy*

At the age of fifty-eight Banneker became interested in astronomy (the study of the universe) through the influence of a neighbor, George Ellicott, who lent him sev-



eral books on the subject as well as a telescope and drafting instruments (tools used in astronomy). Without further guidance or assistance, Banneker taught himself the science of astronomy. He made projections for solar (of the Sun) and lunar (of the Moon) eclipses and computed ephemerides for an almanac. In 1791 Banneker was unable to sell his observations, but these rejections did not stop his studies.

In February 1791 Major Andrew Ellicott (1754–1820), an American surveyor (one who maps out new lands for development), was appointed to survey the 10-mile square of the Federal Territory for a new national capital. Banneker worked in the field for several months as Ellicott's scientific assistant. After the base lines and boundaries had been established and Banneker had returned home, he prepared an ephemeris for the following year, which was published in Baltimore in *Benjamin Banneker's Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland and Virginia Almanack and Ephemeris, for the Year of Our Lord, 1792; Being Bissextile, or Leap-Year, and the Sixteenth Year of American Independence*. Banneker's calculations would give the positions of the planets and stars for each day of the year, and his almanacs were published every year from 1792 until 1797.

### **Communications with Thomas Jefferson**

Banneker forwarded a copy of his calculations to Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826), then secretary of state, with a letter criticizing Jefferson for his proslavery views and urging the abolishment (ending) of slavery of African American people. He compared such slavery to the enslavement of the American colonies by the British crown. Jefferson



*Benjamin Banneker.*

*Reproduced by permission of Fisk University Library.*

acknowledged Banneker's letter and forwarded it to the Marquis de Condorcet, the secretary of the Académie des Sciences in Paris. The exchange of letters between Banneker and Jefferson was published as a separate pamphlet, and was given wide publicity at the time the first almanac was published. The two letters were reprinted in Banneker's almanac for 1793, which also included "A Plan for an Office of Peace," which was the work of Dr. Benjamin Rush (1745–1813). The abolition societies of Maryland and Pennsylvania were very helpful in the publication of Banneker's almanacs, which were widely distributed as an example of an

African American's work and to demonstrate the equal mental abilities of the races.

The last known issue of Banneker's almanacs appeared for the year 1797, because of lessening interest in the antislavery movement. Nevertheless, he prepared ephemerides for each year until 1804. He also published a treatise (a formal writing) on bees and computed the cycle of the seventeen-year locust.

Banneker never married. He died on October 9, 1806, and was buried in the family burial ground near his house. Among the memorabilia preserved from his life were his commonplace book and the manuscript journal in which he had entered astronomical calculations and personal notations. Writers who described his achievements as that of the first African American scientist have kept Banneker's memory alive. Recent studies have proven Banneker's status as an extremely capable mathematician and amateur astronomer.

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## FREDERICK BANTING

**Born:** November 14, 1891  
Alliston, Ontario, Canada

**Died:** February 21, 1941

Newfoundland, Canada

*Canadian medical researcher and scientist*

The Canadian medical scientist Frederick Banting was codiscoverer of insulin, a hormone that regulates the sugar in the blood and helps in the treatment of diabetes (a disorder that causes the body to have difficulty maintaining a healthy blood sugar level). Because of this discovery, Banting became the first Canadian to be awarded the Nobel Prize.

#### **Childhood**

Frederick Grant Banting was born in Alliston, Ontario, Canada, on November 14, 1891, to William Thompson Banting, a well-established farmer, and Margaret Grant Banting, who had moved to Canada from Ireland. The youngest of five children, Banting attended the local elementary schools before enrolling at the University of Toronto in 1911 in an arts course leading to theology (the study of religion). He decided, however, that he wanted to be a doctor, and in 1912 he registered as a medical student.

With World War I (1914–18, a war in which German-led forces fought for European control) under way, Banting left college in 1915 to join the medical corps as a private (the lowest military rank). Doctors were urgently needed, however, and he was sent back to finish his studies, graduating in 1916. Banting was commissioned (made an officer) in the Royal Canadian Army Medical Corps and left for England, where he received exceptional surgical experience in several army hospitals.

In 1920 Banting moved to London, Ontario, and opened a medical office. One evening he read an article dealing with new discoveries in fighting diabetes, a blood disorder. Banting's interest in diabetes stemmed from his school days when a classmate had died because of the disorder. This event affected him deeply, and now his mind eagerly looked for possibilities worthy of investigation.

### ***Initiation of the insulin work***

In 1920 Banting went to Toronto for an interview with the professor of physiology (the study of life systems) Dr. J. J. R. Macleod (1876–1902). Banting described his ideas and his desire to investigate the fluids released by the pancreas, a gland located near the stomach. He begged for an opportunity to try out his theories in the laboratory, but Macleod refused, for he knew that Banting had no training in research. Banting returned to Toronto several times to try to persuade Macleod. Finally, impressed by his enthusiasm and determination, Macleod promised Banting the use of the laboratory for eight weeks during the summer. Macleod knew that if Banting was to have any success, someone who knew the latest chemical techniques would have to work with him. Charles Best (1899–1978), completing courses in physiology and biochemistry (the study of biological processes), had been working on a problem related to diabetes in Macleod's department. Banting and Best met and decided that work would begin on May 17, 1921, the day following Best's final examination.

### ***Discovery of insulin***

The first attempts to produce a diabetic condition upon which to study the effect of



*Frederick Banting.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

pancreatic secretions were not successful. The observations were repeated time and again until, finally, there was convincing evidence that the fluids taken from the pancreas secretions did produce the dramatic effect that was being sought in animals lacking a pancreas.

As the material was extracted from the microscopic islands of Langerhans (cells of the pancreas, different from the majority, which are grouped together in tissue named after Paul Langerhans [1847–1888], the German physician who discovered them), it was called “isletin.” Later the name was changed to “insulin,” meaning island. Again and again

the same successful results were obtained, and when Macleod returned to Toronto at the end of the summer, he was finally convinced that Banting and Best had captured the correct hormone (a substance produced by an organ) to prove Banting's theory.

On November 14, 1921, Banting and Best presented their findings before the Physiological Journal Club of the University of Toronto, and later that month a paper entitled "The Internal Secretion of the Pancreas" was submitted for publication in the *Journal of Laboratory and Clinical Medicine*. News of the discovery brought scientists from many parts of the world, as well as diabetics and their families, to Toronto.

#### ***Nobel Prize and other honors***

In 1923 Banting received the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine jointly with Macleod. With characteristic generosity he divided his share with Best. That year the university established the Banting and Best Department of Medical Research with a special grant from the Ontario Legislature. In 1934 Banting was made a knight commander of the British Empire and the following year was elected a fellow (associate) of the Royal Society of London.

Banting was killed in a plane crash on the coast of Newfoundland on February 21, 1941, while on a war mission to England. Because of his research and advancements, Banting has improved the lives of diabetics around the world.

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## KLAUS BARBIE

**Born:** October 25, 1913

**Bad Godesberg, Germany**

**Died:** September 25, 1941

**Lyon, France**

*German military leader*

Klaus Barbie, known as the "Butcher of Lyon," was a leader in the Nazi group called the SS, and was head of anti-Resistance operations in France during the German occupation of World War II (1935–45). As a war criminal (someone who commits crimes that violate the conventions of warfare during wartime) Barbie lived in Bolivia as Klaus Altmann for thirty years before he was arrested and returned to France for trial.

#### ***Shadow of war***

Klaus Barbie was born October 25, 1913, in the town of Bad Godesberg, a few miles down the Rhine River from Bonn, Germany. The son of a schoolteacher, he spent an uneventful childhood as a good but not brilliant student with a gift for languages. His father had served and had been wounded in

World War I (1914–18). Klaus Barbie grew up in a Germany that had been bitterly humiliated by its defeat in the war.

Barbie's father died in 1932, leaving the family with little money. With no funds to go to college, he began working for the National Socialist Germany Workers Party (Nazi Party), the party that brought Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) to power in Germany.

### *A sinister career*

Hitler became chancellor (head of the government) of Germany in 1933. Two years later, when Barbie was twenty-two, he joined the Schutzstaffel (SS), the Nazi Party's security squad that swore loyalty not to Germany but to Hitler. He served in the Sicherheitsdienst (SD), the intelligence and security branch of the SS, and was assigned to a number of posts in Europe for the next six years. During this time, as the German war machine swept westward, Barbie won a reputation as a shrewd, dedicated SS officer. He earned increases in his position, and admiring superiors expressed their approval of his performance.

After Germany invaded France in 1941, Barbie became head of operations to control the Resistance, the underground organization of French patriots resisting Nazi rule. He is widely believed to have been responsible for the torture and death of Jean Moulin (1899–1943), the secret head of France's anti-Nazi coalition. As head of the Gestapo security police in Lyon, Barbie also appears to have been responsible for a number of "actions" against innocent French Jews. Among them a raid on an orphanage in the town of Izieu, which sent over fifty boys and girls to the gas chambers at the concentration camp of Auschwitz in Poland.



*Klaus Barbie.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

### *Postwar activities*

When the war in Europe ended in spring 1945 with the Nazis' defeat, Barbie hid from the Allies (the nations allied against Germany, including Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States) until April 1947. At this point he was recruited by the Counter Intelligence Corps of the U.S. Army in occupied Germany. Although the army had a warrant for Barbie's arrest as someone suspected of underground activities, the regional commander decided that his skills as an interrogator (someone who questions suspects or prisoners) made him more valuable as a spy than as a prisoner.

Over the next four years Barbie took on increasing responsibility for the army. At one time he ran a spy network that included scores of informants in East and West Germany and France. Barbie soon became one of the army's most trusted spies. In 1949, however, his presence became known to French war crimes investigators, who demanded that the "Butcher of Lyon" be turned over to them to stand trial for his crimes.

The U.S. army took a fateful step. It decided not to surrender Barbie to the French, fearing embarrassment by his service and worrying that he might disclose wide-ranging U.S. intelligence efforts to the French. With the aid of a Croatian priest, it delivered Barbie to Genoa, Italy, under the false name of "Klaus Altmann." There he and his wife and two young children boarded an Italian ship to Buenos Aires, Argentina. The "Altmann" family quickly moved to the mountainous city of La Paz, Bolivia, where Barbie supported himself as an auto mechanic.

Barbie's skills as a spy did not go unnoticed in the military government of Bolivia, and before long he became an associate of high-ranking generals. It is likely that he served as an adviser to Bolivia's secret security police. It is known that he became the director of Transmaritima Boliviana, a company organized to hire ships to bring supplies to land-locked Bolivia. He lived as any prosperous businessman might and was often seen in La Paz's cafes and restaurants.

### *True identity discovered*

The past began to catch up with Barbie in 1971. Beate Klarsfeld, a German-born homemaker married to French lawyer Serge

Klarsfeld, discovered from a German prosecutor's files that Barbie was living in Bolivia under the name of Altmann. In a dramatic move, she went to La Paz and chained herself to a fence, demanding that "Altmann" be tried for his crimes.

Although Klarsfeld's initial effort was unsuccessful, the spotlight of publicity was on Barbie to stay. For over a decade, "Altmann" denied that he was Barbie, but his identity was no secret to the regimes that had kept Bolivia under military rule. Finally, in 1982, a civilian government came to power. In February 1983 Barbie was arrested and turned over to French officials.

Barbie's return to France created tremendous publicity and soul-searching in the country, which had never fully come to terms with its mixed record of both collaboration with and resistance to the Nazis. Shortly after his return, the prosecutor in Lyon announced that Barbie would stand trial on several charges of "crimes against humanity." These events had consequences in America as well. Following a five-month investigation, the U.S. Department of Justice revealed Barbie's post-war role for U.S. intelligence and issued a formal apology to France for "delaying justice in Lyon" for nearly thirty-three years.

### *Justice served*

Like nearly all the others who committed horrifying deeds under the Nazis, Barbie showed little remorse for his crimes. "There are no war crimes," he said. "There are only acts of war." When he was expelled from Bolivia, he seemed indifferent, saying, "I did my duty. I have forgotten. If they [the French] have not forgotten, that is their business."

The French had not forgotten. Nevertheless, three years after his return Barbie was still in a jail cell in Lyon, with no date set for his trial. The long awaited trial was again delayed in 1986, when the French Court of Indictments ruled that Barbie could be tried for crimes against Resistance fighters as well as for “crimes against humanity.” Barbie was imprisoned for life in 1987 for crimes including the murders of at least four Jews and Resistance workers and fifteen thousand deportations to death camps. He was the last German war criminal of rank to be tried. Barbie died of cancer in a prison hospital in Lyon on September 25, 1991.

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## CHRISTIAAN BARNARD

**Born:** November 8, 1922

**Beaufort West, South Africa**

**Died:** September 2, 2001

**Paphos, Cyprus**

*South African surgeon*

The South African surgeon Christiaan Barnard performed the world's first human heart transplant operation in 1967 and the first double-heart transplant in 1974.

### **Childhood and education**

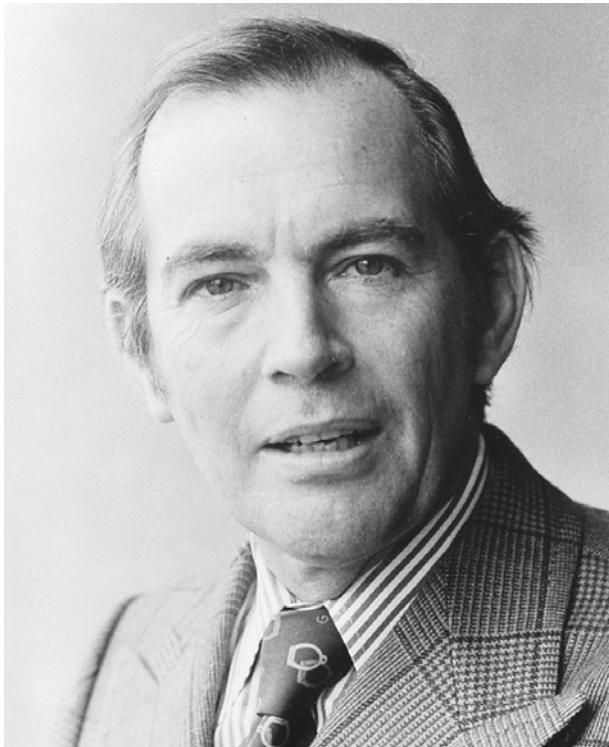
Christiaan N. Barnard was born to Dutch descendants on November 8, 1922, in Beaufort West, South Africa. Barnard, along with his three brothers, grew up extremely poor and attended the local public schools. Barnard then went on to the University of Cape Town, where he received a master's degree in 1953.

Barnard worked for a short time as a doctor before joining the Cape Town Medical School staff as a research fellow in surgery. With the hope of pursuing his research interests and gaining new surgical skills and experiences, he enrolled at the University of Minnesota Medical School in 1955. After two years of study he received his Ph.D. (doctorate degree) and returned to his native country to embark upon a career as a cardiothoracic (heart) surgeon.

### **A distinguished surgeon**

Before Barnard left for America, he had gained recognition for research in gastrointestinal pathology (intestinal diseases), where he proved that the fatal birth defect known as congenital intestinal atresia (a gap in the small intestines) was due to the fetus (undeveloped baby) not receiving enough blood during pregnancy. Barnard proved that this condition could be cured by a surgical procedure. Upon his return to South Africa, he introduced open-heart surgery to that country, designed artificial valves for the human heart, and experimented with the transplantation of the hearts of dogs. All of this served as preparation for his 1967 human heart transplant.

Although Barnard was a pioneering cardiac surgeon, his advances were based on



*Christiaan Barnard.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

work that came before him. Of crucial importance was the first use of hypothermia (artificial lowering of the body temperature) in 1952, and the introduction in the following year of an effective heart-lung machine. These advances, combined with other techniques perfected in the 1960s, enabled a surgeon for the first time to operate upon a heart that was motionless and free of blood.

### ***The first transplant***

After a decade of heart surgery, Barnard felt ready to accept the challenge posed by the transplantation of the human heart. In 1967 he encountered Louis Washkansky, a

fifty-four-year-old patient who suffered from extensive coronary artery disease (the arteries around the heart) and who agreed to undergo a heart transplant operation. On December 2, 1967, the heart of a young woman killed in an accident was removed while Washkansky was prepared to receive it. The donor heart was kept alive in a heart-lung machine that circulated Washkansky's blood until the patient's diseased organ could be removed and replaced with the healthy one.

In order to fool the body's defense mechanism that would normally reject a foreign organism, Barnard and his team of heart specialists gave the patient large doses of drugs, which allowed the patient's body to accept the new organ. Washkansky's body was not able to defend itself against infection, however, and he died on December 21, 1967, of double pneumonia, a disease effecting the lungs. Despite Washkansky's death, Barnard was praised around the world for his surgical feat. Within a year (January 1968) Barnard replaced the diseased heart of Philip Blaiberg, a fifty-eight-year-old retired dentist. This time the drug dosage was lowered, and Blaiberg lived for twenty months with his new heart. After Barnard's successful operations, surgeons in Europe and the United States began performing heart transplants, improving upon the procedures first used in South Africa.

### ***Later career***

Seven years after Barnard performed his first heart transplant, he made medical history once again when he performed a "twin-heart" operation on November 25, 1974. This time he removed only the diseased por-



tion of the heart of fifty-eight-year-old Ivan Taylor, replacing it with the heart of a ten-year-old child. The donor heart acted as a booster and back-up for the patient's diseased organ. Although Barnard was optimistic about this new operation, which he believed was less radical than a total implantation, the patient died within four months.

Rheumatoid arthritis (a severe swelling of the joints), which had plagued Barnard since the 1960s, limited his surgical experimentation in later years. As a result, he turned to writing novels as well as books on health, medicine, and South Africa while also serving as a scientific consultant.

Barnard's advances in heart surgery brought him honors from a host of foreign medical societies, governments, universities, and philanthropic (charitable) institutions. He has also been presented many honors, including the Dag Hammarskjöld International Prize and Peace Prize, the Kennedy Foundation Award, and the Milan International Prize for Science. Barnard died on September 2, 2001, while on vacation in Paphos, Cyprus. He was seventy-eight.

Shortly before Barnard's death, he spoke with *Time* magazine and left these inspiring words: "The heart transplant wasn't such a big thing surgically," he said. "The point is I was prepared to take the risk. My philosophy is that the biggest risk in life is not to take the risk."

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## CLARA BARTON

**Born:** December 25, 1821

**North Oxford, Massachusetts**

**Died:** April 21, 1922

**Glen Echo, Maryland**

*American humanitarian*

A humanitarian works for the well-being of others. The American humanitarian Clara Barton was the founder of the American Red Cross. Her work helping people in times of war and times of peace made her a symbol of humanitarianism.

### **Early life and career**

Clara Barton was born on December 25, 1821, in North Oxford, Massachusetts. She was the youngest child of Stephen Barton, a farmer and state law maker who had served in the American Revolution (1775–83), and his wife, Sarah. She later recalled that his tales made war familiar to her at an early age. Barton acquired skills that would serve her well when, at age eleven, she helped look after a sick older brother. In return her brother taught her skills that young women did not usually learn, such as carpentry.

The teenage Barton was very shy but was also well spoken and well read. Her mother suggested that she put her gifts to work by becoming a teacher. At age fifteen Barton began teaching at nearby schools. In 1850 she left to teach at Bordentown, New Jersey. Families in Bordentown were required to pay for children's schooling. Thus many children were unable to attend. Barton offered to teach without salary if children could attend for free. She



*Clara Barton.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

later took pride in having established the first free school in New Jersey and in having raised enrollment from six to six hundred. However, when town officials decided to appoint a male principal over her, she resigned.

### ***Civil War activities***

Barton was working for the patent office in Washington, D.C., when the Civil War (1861–65) began. She decided to serve the Federal troops by personally collecting and storing supplies that people had given freely in support of the troops. In Washington she collected and stored food and medical sup-

plies that could be distributed to the troops. In 1862 she was permitted to travel to places where the fighting was taking place. Barton was with Federal forces during the siege of Charleston, South Carolina, and also at battles in other areas.

Barton did not work primarily as a nurse during the war. She became increasingly skilled at obtaining and passing out supplies. However, her courage and concern for people made her presence strongly felt everywhere she went.

In 1865 Barton decided to begin the project of locating missing soldiers. With President Lincoln's approval, she set up the Bureau of Records in Washington and traced perhaps twenty thousand men.

### ***Franco-Prussian War***

Barton suffered from periods of poor health. In 1869 she went to Geneva, Switzerland, hoping to improve her condition through rest and change. There she met officials of the recently organized International Red Cross, a group that worked to help victims of war. They urged her to seek U.S. agreement to the Geneva Convention, a treaty that permitted medical personnel to be treated as neutral parties who could aid the sick and wounded during wars. Before Barton could turn to this task the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71), a war in which France was defeated by a group of German states led by Prussia, began.

Barton helped organize military hospitals during this war. Her most original idea was to put needy women in Strasbourg, France, to work sewing garments for pay. She also introduced this work system in Lyons, France. In 1873 she was awarded the Iron

Cross of Merit by the German emperor, William I (1797–1888). It was one of many such honors for Barton.

### ***American Red Cross***

Barton then returned to the United States and settled in Danville, New York. In 1877 she wrote to a founder of the International Red Cross and offered to lead an American branch of the organization. Thus, at age fifty-six she began a new career. In 1881 Barton incorporated the American Red Cross; that is, she organized it as a legal corporation. The American Red Cross was devoted to helping people in need during peacetime as well as wartime. She herself served as its president. A year later her extraordinary efforts brought about U.S. agreement to the Geneva Convention.

In 1883 Barton also served as superintendent of the Women's Reformatory Prison in Sherborn, Massachusetts. However, she remained devoted to her major cause. In 1882 she traveled as a Red Cross worker to assist victims of fires in Michigan and earthquake victims in Charleston, South Carolina. In 1884 she brought supplies to flood victims along the Ohio River. Five years later she went to Johnstown, Pennsylvania, after it suffered a disastrous flood. Barton also traveled to Russia and Turkey to assist those in need. As late as 1900 she visited Galveston, Texas, to supervise assistance after a tidal wave.

### ***Retirement and death***

In 1900 Congress reincorporated the Red Cross and demanded a review of its funds. Soon public pressures and conflict within the Red Cross itself became too much for Barton. She resigned from the organization in 1904.

By this point Barton was a figure of international fame. She retired to Glen Echo, Maryland, and died there on April 12, 1912.

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## COUNT BASIE

**Born:** August 21, 1904

**Red Bank, New Jersey**

**Died:** April 26, 1984

**Hollywood, Florida**

*African American bandleader and musician*

Count Basie was an extremely popular figure in the jazz world for half a century. He was a fine pianist and leader of one of the greatest jazz bands in history.

### ***Early years***

William Basie was born in Red Bank, New Jersey, on August 21, 1904. His parents, Harvey and Lillian (Childs) Basie, were both musicians. Basie played drums in his school band and took some piano lessons from his



Count Basie.

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mother. But it was in Harlem, New York City, that he learned the basics of piano, mainly from his sometime organ teacher, the great Fats Waller (1904–1943).

Basie made his professional debut playing piano with vaudeville acts (traveling variety entertainment). While on one tour he became stranded in Kansas City, Missouri. After working briefly as house organist in a silent movie theater, he joined Walter Page's Blue Devils in 1928. When that band broke up in 1929, he Bennie Moten's band hired him. He played piano with them, with one interruption, for the next five years. It was

during this time that he was given the nickname "Count."

After Moten died in 1935, Basie took what was left of the band, expanded the personnel, and formed the first Count Basie Orchestra. Within a year the band developed its own variation of the Kansas City swing style—a solid rhythm backing the horn soloists, who were also supported by sectional riffing (the repeating of a musical figure by the non-soloing brass and reeds). This familiar pattern was evident in the band's theme song, "One O'Clock Jump," written by Basie himself in 1937.

### *Success in the swing era*

By 1937 Basie's band was, with the possible exception of Duke Ellington's (1899–1974), the most famous African American band in America. Basie's band regularly worked some of the better big city hotel ballrooms. With many of the other big bands of the swing era he also shared the less appealing one-nighters (a series of single night performances in a number of small cities and towns that were traveled to by bus).

Many of the band's arrangements were "heads"—arrangements worked out without planning in rehearsal and then written down later. The songs were often designed to showcase the band's brilliant soloists. Sometimes the arrangement was the reworking of a standard tune—"I Got Rhythm," "Dinah," or "Lady, Be Good." Sometimes a member of the band would come up with an original, written with a particular soloist or two in mind. Two of Basie's earliest favorites, "Jumpin' at the Woodside" and "Lester Leaps In," were created as features for saxophonist Lester Young. They were referred to as "flagwavers,"

fast-paced tunes designed to excite the audience. The swing era band (1935–45) was unquestionably Basie's greatest. The superior arrangements (reflecting Basie's good taste) and the skilled performers (reflecting Basie's sound management) gave the band a permanent place in jazz history.

### **Later years**

The loss of key personnel (some to military service), the wartime ban on recordings, the 1943 musicians' strike, the strain of one-nighters, and the bebop revolution of the mid-1940s all played a role in the death of the big-band era. Basie decided to form a medium-sized band in 1950, juggling combinations of all-star musicians. The groups' recordings were of the highest quality, but in 1951 Basie returned to his first love—the big band—and it thrived. Another boost was provided in the late 1950s by the recording of "April in Paris," which became the trademark of the band for the next quarter of a century.

A stocky, handsome man with heavy-lidded eyes and a sly smile, Basie was a shrewd judge of talent and character, and he was extremely patient in dealing with the egos of his musicians. He and his band recorded with many other famous artists, including Duke

Ellington (1899–1974), Frank Sinatra (1915–1998), Ella Fitzgerald (1917–1996), and Sarah Vaughan (1924–1990). Perhaps the most startling of the band's achievements was its fifty-year survival in a culture that experienced so many changes in musical fashion, especially after the mid-1960s, when jazz lost much of its audience to other forms of music.

In 1976 Basie suffered a heart attack, but he returned to the bandstand half a year later. During his last years he had difficulty walking and so rode out on stage in a motorized wheelchair. He died of cancer in Hollywood, Florida, on April 26, 1984. His wife, Catherine, had died in 1983. They had one daughter. The band survived Basie's death, with trumpeter Thad Jones directing until his own death in 1986.

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U·X·L

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## *reader's guide*

*U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography* features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

for further information. A contents section lists biographees by their nationality. Nearly 750 photographs and illustrations are featured, and a general index provides quick access to the people and subjects discussed throughout *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*.

### ***Special thanks***

Much appreciation goes to Mary Alice Anderson, media specialist at Winona Middle School in Winona, Minnesota, and Nina Levine, library media specialist at Blue Mountain Middle School in Cortlandt Manor, New York, for their assistance in developing the entry list. Many thanks also go to the following people for their important editorial contri-



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### ***Comments and suggestions***

We welcome your comments on the *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*. Please write: Editors, *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*, U•X•L, 27500 Drake Road, Farmington Hills, MI 48331-3535; call toll-free: 1-800-877-4253; fax to 248-699-8097; or send e-mail via [www.gale.com](http://www.gale.com).



## BEATLES

*English rock and roll band*

In the 1960s a new band known as the Beatles burst on the pop music scene and changed it forever. Band members included George Harrison (1943–2001), John Lennon (1940–1980), Paul McCartney (1942–), and Ringo Starr (1940–). With the release of three anthologies (collections) in the mid-1990s, the Beatles remain one of the best-selling musical groups of all time.

### *Early days*

The Beatles came from Liverpool, England, and were originally inspired by the

simple guitar-and-washboard style “skiffle” music. Skiffle was a lively type of acoustic (nonelectric) music that used songs from British and American folk and popular music. Later such U.S. pop artists as Elvis Presley (1935–1977), Buddy Holly (1936–1959), and Little Richard (1932–) influenced them. All four members of the Beatles had an early interest in music.

The Beatles started when John Lennon formed his own group, called the Quarrymen, in 1956. Paul McCartney joined the group as a guitarist in 1957. Fourteen-year-old George Harrison, though a skilled guitarist, did not initially impress seventeen-year-old Lennon, but eventually won a permanent spot in the developing group. The



*The Beatles.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

Beatles went through several additional members as well as through several name changes. After the Quarrymen they became Johnny and the Moondogs. Later they called themselves the Silver Beatles, and, eventually, simply The Beatles. They played not only in Liverpool, but also in Scotland and in Hamburg, Germany, in 1960.

When the Beatles' bass player, Stu Sutcliffe, decided to leave, McCartney took over that instrument. Upon their return to England, a record shop manager named Brian Epstein approached the band about becoming their manager. Within a year of signing Epstein on

as manager, the Beatles gained a recording contract from EMI Records producer George Martin. Drummer Pete Best left the group and a sad-eyed drummer named Richard Starkey, better known as Ringo Starr, joined.

Despite initial doubts, George Martin agreed to use Lennon and McCartney originals on both sides of the Beatles' first single. "Love Me Do," released on October 5, 1962, convinced Martin that, with the right material, the Beatles could achieve a number one record. He was proven correct.

### *First successes*

The Beatles' "Please Please Me," released in Britain on January 12, 1963, was an immediate hit. The Beatles' first British album, recorded in one thirteen-hour session, remained number one on the charts for six months. The United States remained uninterested until, one month before the Beatles' arrival, EMI's U.S. company, Capitol Records, launched an unprecedented (never done before) fifty thousand dollar promotional campaign. The publicity and the Beatles' American tour-opening performance on *The Ed Sullivan Show*, the most popular entertainment show on television at the time, paid off handsomely. They were given the nicknames "The Fab Four" and "The Mop Tops" (because of their hair styles). The devotion of their fans was called Beatlemania.

The Beatles' "I Want to Hold Your Hand," released in the United States in January 1964, hit number one within three weeks. After seven weeks at the top of the charts, it dropped to number two to make room for "She Loves You," which gave way to "Can't Buy Me Love." As many as three new songs a week were released, until, on April 4,

1964, the Beatles held the top five slots on the Billboard (a recording industry publication) list of top sellers. They also had another seven songs in the top one hundred, plus four album positions, including the top two. One week later fourteen of the top one hundred songs were the Beatles'—a feat that had never been matched before, nor has it since.

### ***New career in movies***

Also in 1964 the Beatles appeared in the first of several innovative full-length feature films. Shot in black-and-white and well-received by critics, *A Hard Day's Night* was a fictional representation of a day in the life of the group. Critics and fans loved it. *Help* was released in July 1965. It was a madcap (recklessly foolish) fantasy filmed in color. Exotic locations in Europe and the Bahamas made *Help* visually more interesting than the first film, but critics were less impressed.

### ***Growth and controversy***

The Beatles' 1965 and 1966 albums *Rubber Soul* and *Revolver* marked a turning point in the band's recording history. The most original of their collections to date, both combined Eastern, country-western, soul, and classical motifs with trend-setting covers, breaking any mold that seemed to define "rock and roll." In both albums balladry (songs that tell stories), classical instrumentation, and new structure resulted in brilliant new concepts. Songs such as "Tomorrow Never Knows," "Eleanor Rigby," and the lyrical "Norwegian Wood" made use of sophisticated (subtle and complex) recording techniques. This was the beginning of the end for the group's touring, since live performances of such songs were technically impossible at the time.

The Beatles became further distanced from their fans, when, in an interview with a *London Evening Standard* writer, Lennon said, "We're more popular than Jesus Christ now." Later Lennon said he was misunderstood. Some American teenagers took Lennon's words literally, however. They burned Beatles' albums, and the group finished their last U.S. tour amid riots and death threats.

### ***The change of rock and roll***

Acclaimed by critics, with advance sales of more than one million, the Beatles' *Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band* (1967) was perhaps the high point of their recording career. It was not simply a "collection" of Lennon-McCartney and Harrison originals. Presented in a stunning and evocative album package, it was thematically (everything related to one idea) whole and artistically pleasing. Most critics believe it will remain timeless. It contains imaginative melodies and songs about many life experiences, philosophy, and unusual imagery. The Beatles' music had evolved from catchy love songs to profound ballads and social commentary. Trying new things seemed to be an essential part of the Beatles' lives. Influenced greatly by Harrison's interest in India, the Beatles visited the Maharishi Mahesh Yogi in India.

### ***The long winding road down***

The Beatles' next cooperative project was the scripting and directing of another film, *Magical Mystery Tour* (1967) for the British Broadcasting Company (BBC). It was an unrehearsed, unorganized failure. Intended to be fresh, it drew criticism as a compilation of adolescent humor, gag bits, and undisciplined boredom. The accompanying album, howev-

er, featured polished studio numbers such as McCartney's "Fool on the Hill" and Lennon's "I Am the Walrus," as well as "Penny Lane," "Hello Goodbye," and "Strawberry Fields Forever," which were not included in the film.

Growing differences between artistic approaches pointed to the Beatles breaking up. In 1968 they recorded a two-record set, simply called *The Beatles*. It was the first album released by the group's new record company, Apple. *The White Album*, as it was commonly known, had a variety of songs that had no connection to each other and, some felt, that were often difficult to understand. There particularly appeared to be a growing break between Lennon and McCartney. McCartney contributed ballads like "Blackbird," while Lennon gave antiwar statements like "Revolution" and made fun of the Maharishi. Harrison, on the other hand, shone in "While My Guitar Gently Weeps," aided by Eric Clapton's tasteful guitar solo. For the first time Starr was allotted the space for an original, the country-western "Don't Pass Me By," which became a number-one hit in Scandinavia (northern Europe), where it was released as a single.

The Beatles' animated feature film *Yellow Submarine* was released in July 1968. A fantasy about the Beatles battling against the Blue Meanies, the film was visually pleasing, but did not make much money when it was first released.

The remainder of 1968 and 1969 saw the individual Beatles continuing to work apart. Starr appeared in the film *The Magic Christian*. Lennon performed live outside the Beatles in a group called the Plastic Ono Band with his wife Yoko Ono (1933–).

### **Last works**

The Beatles spent months filming and recording for *Let It Be*. It was supposed to be a film of how the group worked together. It ended up as a film showing the group falling apart. Editing would have made release before 1970 impossible, so the project was put on hold. Instead, for the final time, the Beatles gathered to produce an album "the way we used to do it," as McCartney was quoted in Philip Norman's book, *Shout!* The result was as stunning as *Sgt. Pepper* had been. All their problems seemed to vanish on the album *Abbey Road* (1969). The Beatles were at their best. The album contained such classics as "Come Together," "Golden Slumbers," "Octopus's Garden," and Harrison's "Here Comes the Sun" and "Something," which Lennon hailed the best track on the album. They won yet another Grammy Award.

American producer Phil Spector (1940–) took over the Beatles' *Let It Be* project in 1970. The resulting film and album, released in 1971, got mixed reviews. Band members were seen quarreling and unresponsive to McCartney's attempts to raise morale (spirit). By the end of 1970 all four Beatles had recorded solo albums. In 1971 McCartney sued to legally end the group. Throughout the 1970s promoters attempted to reunite them without success.

### **The end of an era**

Mark David Chapman murdered John Lennon on December 8, 1980, in New York City, New York. In the mid-1990s, however, new music was released under the original band name. The remaining Beatles played over songs Lennon had left on tape. The singles

“Free as a Bird” and “Real Love” were released as parts of anthologies featuring material from earlier Beatles recording sessions.

George Harrison died on November 29, 2001, in Los Angeles, California, of brain cancer. Both Paul McCartney and Ringo Starr continue to record. The Beatles were a major influence not only in rock and roll but also in the creation of modern popular music. The Beatles were inducted into the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame in 1988. Lennon and McCartney have also been inducted as solo performers.

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## WILLIAM BEAUMONT

**Born:** November 21, 1785  
Lebanon, Connecticut

**Died:** April 25, 1853

**St. Louis, Missouri**

*American surgeon*

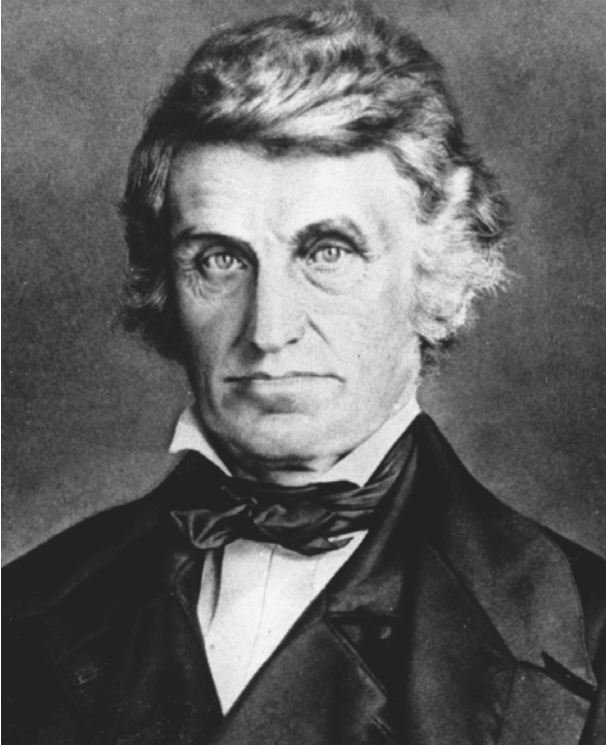
The American surgeon William Beaumont is remembered for extensive studies of the human digestive system based on the experiments of a live patient.

### **Early life and career**

William Beaumont was born in Lebanon, Connecticut, on November 21, 1785. He grew up on the family farm and attended village schools until 1806, when he left home to become the village schoolmaster in Champlain, New York. He began studying medicine in his spare time, and in 1810 he became an apprentice (one who works for another to learn a profession) to a doctor in Vermont. While living with the doctor and performing household duties, Beaumont gained invaluable experience by watching and sometimes assisting the doctor. While still a student, he began a lifelong habit of keeping a journal describing daily events and the symptoms and treatment of patients.

In 1812 the Third Medical Society of the State of Vermont recommended Beaumont as a medical practitioner. Soon afterward Beaumont served as a surgeon's mate in the War of 1812, where American forces clashed with the British over, among other things, trade. In his journal he described long and exhausting days and nights spent treating the wounded.

After the war Beaumont returned to private practice in Plattsburg, New York. In 1820 he reenlisted as an army surgeon and was sent to Fort Mackinac in the Michigan Territory. His account of the journey contains



William Beaumont.

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vivid descriptions of the voyage along the recently completed Erie Canal (a key waterway that connects the Great Lakes) and through the Canadian wilderness. He was the only doctor in the territory, and his practice included soldiers and their families, Native Americans, trappers, and settlers. In 1821 Beaumont returned briefly to Plattsburgh and married Deborah Platt.

#### ***A new development***

On June 6, 1822 Alexis St. Martin, a young Canadian, suffered a stomach wound in a hunting accident. Beaumont was called to treat him. He described the terrible wound:

“The whole charge, consisting of powder and duck shot, was received in the left side at not more than two or three feet distance from the muzzle of the piece . . . carrying away by its force integuments [skin of the organs] more than the size of the palm of a man’s hand.”

With Beaumont’s skillful surgery and care that followed, St. Martin recovered but was left with a permanent opening in his stomach. When authorities threatened to send the recovering man back to Canada, Beaumont supported him in his own house for several years. During this time he was able to study the digestive process by examining the interior of the patient’s stomach as various foods were ingested (swallowed). Beaumont’s observations and chemical analyses of gastric juices (acidic juices found in the stomach) provided the foundations for conclusions which are still used today.

In 1824 when Beaumont was transferred to Fort Niagara, New York, he attempted to take St. Martin with him, but the young man returned to Canada. President John Quincy Adams (1767–1848) promoted Beaumont to the rank of surgeon in 1826. He served at Green Bay, Wisconsin, and later at Fort Crawford, Wisconsin. Meanwhile, he had finally persuaded St. Martin to come to Fort Crawford for further experiments, but his plans to take his patient to Europe for demonstrations and study were interrupted by an outbreak of cholera, an oftentimes fatal infection transmitted through water.

Later in 1832 Beaumont used a six-month leave of absence to take St. Martin to Washington, D.C., for an extensive series of experiments. Both the surgeon general and the secretary of war supported the project with funds and facilities, and they even enlisted St. Martin

in the army as sergeant in exchange for his cooperation. These experiments led to Beaumont's *Experiments and Observations on the Gastric Juice and the Physiology of Digestion* (1833). The book is divided into two parts, one which details the experiments themselves, and another that discusses the processes of digestion.

Beaumont had additional experiments in mind, but St. Martin returned to Canada forever in 1834. Beaumont's last post was in St. Louis, Missouri, where he remained for the rest of his life. After his retirement in 1840, he continued private practice until his death on April 25, 1853.

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## SIMONE DE BEAUVOIR

**Born:** January 9, 1908

Paris, France

**Died:** April 14, 1986

Paris, France

*French author and writer*

**T**he work of Simone de Beauvoir, a French writer, became the basis of the modern women's movement.

Her writing dealt with the struggles of women in a male-controlled world.

### Early years

The first of two daughters of Georges and Françoise de Beauvoir, a middle-class couple, Simone de Beauvoir was born in Paris, France, on January 9, 1908. Her father was a lawyer and had no religious beliefs; her mother was a strong believer in Catholicism. Simone was educated at a strict Catholic school for girls. After World War I (1914–18), her father suffered money problems, and the family moved to a smaller home. Beauvoir entered the Sorbonne and began to take courses in philosophy (the search for an understanding of the world and man's place in it) to become a teacher. By this time she no longer believed all she had been taught in Catholic school. She also began keeping a journal—which became a lifetime habit—and writing some stories.

### Link with Sartre

When Beauvoir was twenty-one she joined a group of philosophy students including Jean-Paul Sartre (1905–1980). Her relationship with Sartre was to continue throughout most of their lives. Sartre was the father of existentialism—a belief that man is on his own, “condemned to be free,” as Sartre said in *Being and Nothingness*. He was also the single most important influence on Beauvoir's life. In 1929 he suggested that, rather than be married, the two sign a contract that could be renewed or cancelled after two years. When the agreement ended, Sartre was offered a job teaching philosophy in Le Havre, France, and Beauvoir was offered a similar job in Marseilles, France. He suggest-





Simone de Beauvoir.

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ed they get married, but after some thought they both rejected the idea.

The first installment of Beauvoir's autobiography (the story of her life), *Memoirs of a Dutiful Daughter*, describes her rejection of her parents' middle-class lives. The second volume, *The Prime of Life*, covers the years 1929 through 1944, a time when she and Sartre were both teaching in Paris and she was, she said, too happy to write. That happiness ended with the beginning of World War II (1939–45) and problems in her relationship with Sartre, who became involved with another woman and was also imprisoned for more than a year. During this

unhappy time Beauvoir composed her first major novel, *She Came to Stay* (1943), a study of the effects of love and jealousy. In the next four years she published *The Blood of Others*, *Pyrrhus et Cinéas*, *Les Bouches Inutiles*, and *All Men are Mortal*. *America Day By Day*, a chronicle of Beauvoir's 1947 trip to the United States, and the third part of her autobiography, *Force of Circumstances*, cover the period during which the author was writing *The Second Sex*.

### The Second Sex

Written in 1949, *The Second Sex* had two main ideas: that man, who views himself as the essential being, has made woman into the inessential being, "the Other," and that femininity as a trait is an artificial posture. Sartre influenced both of these ideas. *The Second Sex* was perhaps the most important writing on women's rights through the 1980s. When it first appeared, however, it was not very popular. *The Second Sex* does not offer any real solutions to the problems of women except the hope "that men and women rise above their natural differentiation (differences) and unequivocally (firmly) affirm their brotherhood." The description of Beauvoir's own life revealed the possibilities available to the woman who found ways to escape her situation. Hers was a life of equality, and she remained a voice and a model for those women not living free lives.

The fourth installment of her autobiography, *All Said And Done*, was written when Beauvoir was sixty-three. In it she describes herself as a person who has always been secure in an imperfect world: "Since I was 21, I have never been lonely. The opportunities granted to me at the beginning helped me not

only to lead a happy life but to be happy in the life I led. I have been aware of my shortcomings and my limits, but I have made the best of them. When I was tormented by what was happening in the world, it was the world I wanted to change, not my place in it." On April 14, 1986, Simone de Beauvoir died in a Paris hospital. Sartre had died six years earlier.

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## SAMUEL BECKETT

**Born:** April 13, 1906

**Dublin, Ireland**

**Died:** December 22, 1989

**Paris, France**

*Irish novelist, playwright, and poet*

Samuel Beckett, the Irish novelist, playwright, and poet was one of the most original and important writers of the twentieth century, winning the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1969.

### **Early life in Ireland**

Samuel Beckett was born in Dublin, Ireland, on April 13, 1906, to middle-class par-

ents, William and Mary Beckett. Mary Beckett was a devoted wife and mother, who spent good times with her two sons in both training and hobbies. His father shared his love of nature, fishing, and golf with his children. Both parents were strict and devoted Protestants.

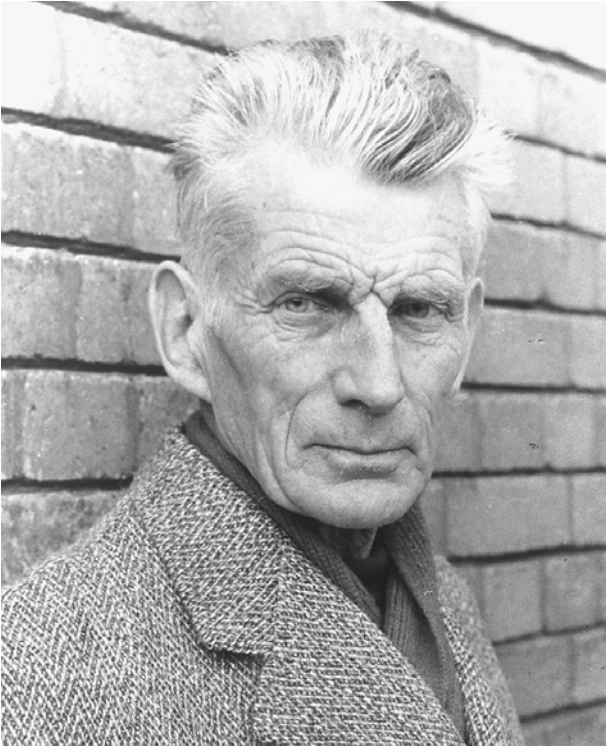
Beckett's tenth year came at the same time as the Easter Uprising in 1916 (the beginning of the Irish civil war for independence from British rule). Beckett's father took him to see Dublin in flames. Meanwhile, World War I (1914–18) had already involved his uncle, who was fighting with the British army. Here was the pairing of opposites at an early age: Beckett wrote of his childhood as a happy one, yet spoke of "unhappiness around me."

He was a quick study, taking on the French language at age six. He attended the Portora Royal boarding school in Enniskillen, County Fermanagh, Ireland, where he continued to excel in academics and became the light-heavyweight boxing champion. He also contributed writings to the school paper. His early doodles were of beggar women, hoboes, and tramps. Schoolmasters often labeled him moody and withdrawn.

In 1923 he entered Trinity College in Dublin to specialize in French and Italian. His academic record was so distinguished that upon receiving his degree in 1927, he was awarded a two-year post as *lecteur* (assistant) in English at the École Normale Supérieure in Paris, France.

### **Literary apprenticeship**

In France Beckett soon joined the informal group surrounding the Irish writer James



Samuel Beckett.

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Joyce (1882–1941) and was invited to contribute the opening essay to a defense and explanation of Joyce's still unfinished *Finnegans Wake* (1939). Beckett also moved in French literary circles. During this first stay in Paris he won a prize for the best poem on the subject of time. *Whoroscope* (1930) was his first separately published work and marked the beginning of his lifelong interest in the theme of time.

Beckett returned to Dublin in 1930 to teach French at Trinity College. During the year he earned a Master of Arts degree. After several years of wandering through Europe writing short stories and poems and being employed at odd jobs, he finally settled in Paris in 1937.

### *First novels and short stories*

*More Pricks than Kicks* (1934), a volume of short stories derived, in part, from the then unpublished novel *Dream of Fair to Middling Women* (1993), recounts episodes from the life of Belacqua. Belacqua, similar in character to all of Beckett's future heroes, lives what he calls "a Beethoven pause," the moments of nothingness between the music. But since what comes before and what follows man's earthly life (that is, eternity) are nothing, then life also (if there is to be continuity) must be a nothingness from which there can be no escape.

Beckett's first novel, *Murphy* (1938), is a comic tale complete with a philosophical (the search for meaning in one's life) problem that Beckett was trying to solve. As *Murphy* turns from the ugly world of outer reality to his own inner world, Beckett reflects upon the relationship between mind and body, the self and the outer world, and the meaning of freedom and love.

During World War II (1939–45; a war in which France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States fought against and defeated the combined powers of Germany, Italy, and Japan) Beckett served in the French Resistance movement (a secret organization of Jews and non-Jews who worked against the Nazis, the political party in control of Germany from 1933 until 1945). In 1953 he wrote another novel, *Watt*. Like each of his novels, it carries Beckett's search for meaning a step further than the preceding one, or, as several critics have said, nearer the center of his thought. In many respects *Watt*'s world is everyone's world and he resembles everyone. Gradually *Watt* discovers that the words men invent may have no relation to

the real meaning of the thing, nor can the logical use of language ever reveal what is illogical or unreasonable, the unknown and the self.

### **Writings in French**

By 1957 the works that finally established his reputation as one of the most important literary forces on the international scene were published, and, surprisingly, all were written in French. Presumably Beckett had sought the discipline of this foreign language to help him resist the temptation of using a style that was too personally suggestive or too hard to grasp. In trying to express the inexpressible, the pure anguish (causing great pain) of existence, he felt he must abandon "literature" or "style" in the conventional sense and attempt to reproduce the voice of this anguish. These works were translated into an English that does not betray the effect of the original French.

The trilogy of novels *Molloy* (1951), *Malone Dies* (1951), and *The Unnamable* (1953) deals with the subject of death; Beckett, however, makes life the source of horror. To all the characters life represents a separation from the continuing reality of themselves. Since freedom can exist only outside time and since death occurs only in time, the characters try to rise above or "kill" time, which imprisons them. Recognizing the impossibility of the task, they are finally reduced to silence and waiting as the only way to endure the anguish of living. Another novel, *How It Is*, first published in French in 1961, emphasizes the loneliness of the individual and at the same time the need for others, for only through the proof of another can one be sure that one exists. The last of his

French novels to be published was *Mercier and Camier*.

### **Plays and later works**

Beckett reached a much wider public through his plays than through his novels. The most famous plays are *Waiting for Godot* (1953), *Endgame* (1957), *Krapp's Last Tape* (1958), and *Happy Days* (1961). The same themes found in the novels appear in these plays in a more condensed and accessible form. Later Beckett experimented successfully with other media: the radio play, film, pantomime, and the television play.

Beckett maintained a large quantity of output throughout his life, publishing the poetry collection, *Mirlitonades* (1978); the extended prose (writing that has no rhyme and is closest to the spoken word) piece, *Worstward Ho* (1983); and numerous novellas (stories with a complex and pointed plot) and short stories in his later years. Many of these pieces were concerned with the failure of language to express the inner being. His first novel, *Dreams of Fair to Middling Women*, was finally published after his death in 1993.

Although they lived in Paris, Beckett and his wife enjoyed frequent stays in their small country house nearby. Unlike his tormented characters, he was distinguished by a great serenity of spirit. He died peacefully in Paris on December 22, 1989.

Samuel Beckett differed from his literary peers even though he shared many of their preoccupations. Although Beckett was suspicious of conventional literature and theater, his aim was not to make fun of it as some authors did. Beckett's work opened new possibilities for both the novel and the

theater that his successors have not been able to ignore.

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## LUDWIG VAN BEETHOVEN

**Born:** December 16, 1770

**Bonn, Germany**

**Died:** March 26, 1827

**Vienna, Austria**

*German composer*

German composer Ludwig van Beethoven is considered one of the most important figures in the history of music. He continued to compose even while losing his hearing and created some of his greatest works after becoming totally deaf.

### **Early years in Bonn**

Ludwig van Beethoven was born in Bonn, Germany, on December 16, 1770. He was the eldest of three children of Johann and Maria Magdalena van Beethoven. His father, a musician who liked to drink, taught him to play piano and violin. Young Ludwig was

often pulled out of bed in the middle of the night and ordered to perform for his father's drinking companions, suffering beatings if he protested. As Beethoven developed, it became clear that to reach artistic maturity he would have to leave Bonn for a major musical center.

At the age of twelve Beethoven was a promising keyboard player and a talented pupil in composition of the court organist Christian Gottlob Neeff (1748–1798). He even filled in as church organist when Neeff was out of town. In 1783 Beethoven's first published work, a set of keyboard pieces, appeared, and in the 1780s he produced portions of a number of later works. In 1787 he traveled to Vienna, Austria, apparently to seek out Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756–1791) as a teacher. He was forced to return to Bonn to care for his ailing mother, who died several months later. His father died in 1792.

### **Years in Vienna**

In 1792 Beethoven went back to Vienna to study with the famous composer Joseph Haydn (1732–1809). Beethoven was not totally satisfied with Haydn's teaching, though, and he turned to musicians of lesser talent for extra instruction. Beethoven rapidly proceeded to make his mark as a brilliant keyboard performer and as a gifted young composer with a number of works to his credit. In 1795 his first mature published works appeared, and his career was officially launched.

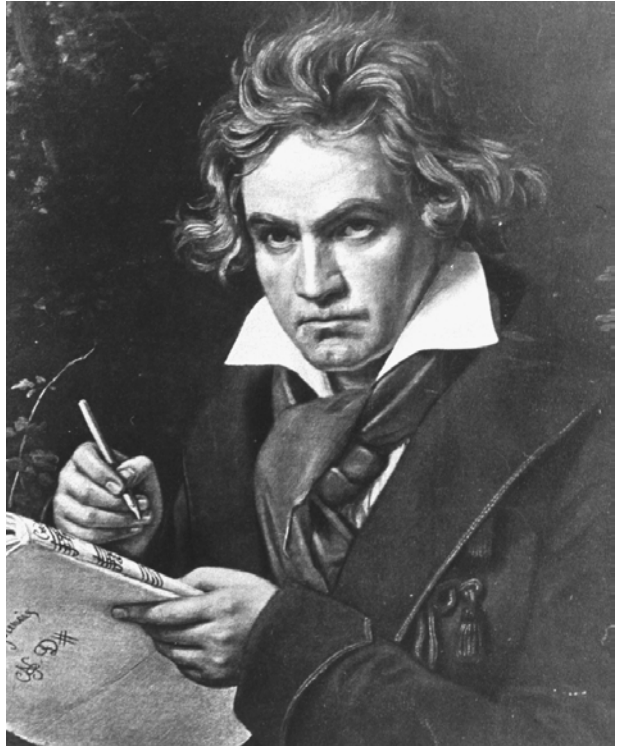
Beethoven lived in Vienna from 1792 to his death in 1827, unmarried, among a circle of friends, independent of any kind of official position or private service. He rarely traveled, apart from summers in the countryside. In 1796 he made a trip to northern Germany, where his schedule included a visit to the court

of King Frederick William of Prussia, an amateur cellist. Later Beethoven made several trips to Budapest, Hungary. In 1808 Beethoven received an invitation to become music director at Kassel, Germany. This alarmed several of his wealthy Viennese friends, who formed a group of backers and agreed to guarantee Beethoven an annual salary of 1,400 florins to keep him in Vienna. He thus became one of the first musicians in history to be able to live independently on his music salary.

### *Personal and professional problems*

Although publishers sought out Beethoven and he was an able manager of his own business affairs, he was at the mercy of the crooked publishing practices of his time. Publishers paid a fee to composers for rights to their works, but there was no system of copyrights (the exclusive right to sell and copy a published work) or royalties (profits based on public performances of the material) at the time. As each new work appeared, Beethoven sold it to one or more of the best and most reliable publishers. But this initial payment was all he would receive, and both he and his publisher had to contend with rival publishers who brought out editions of their own. As a result Beethoven saw his works published in many different versions that were unauthorized, unchecked, and often inaccurate. Several times during his life in Vienna Beethoven started plans for a complete, authorized edition of his works, but these plans were never realized.

Beethoven's two main personal problems, especially in later life, were his deafness and his relationship with his nephew, Karl. Beethoven began to lose his hearing during his early years in Vienna, and the condition



*Ludwig van Beethoven.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

gradually grew worse. So severe was the problem that as early as 1802 he actually considered suicide. In 1815 he gave up hope of performing publicly as a pianist. After 1818 he was no longer able to carry on conversations with visitors, who were forced to communicate with him in writing. The second problem arose when he became Karl's guardian upon the death of his brother in 1815. Karl proved to be unstable and a continuing source of worry to an already troubled man.

Beethoven's deafness and his temper contributed to his reputation as an unpleasant personality. But reliable accounts and a careful reading of Beethoven's letters reveal him to be a powerful and self-conscious man,

totally involved in his creative work but alert to its practical side as well, and one who is sometimes willing to change to meet current demands. For example, he wrote some works on commission, such as his cantata (a narrative poem set to music) for the Congress of Vienna, 1814.

### Examining Beethoven

Beethoven's deafness affected his social life, and it must have changed his personality deeply. In any event, his development as an artist would probably have caused a crisis in his relationship to the musical and social life of the time sooner or later. In his early years he wrote as a pianist-composer for an immediate and receptive public; in his last years he wrote for himself. Common in Beethoven's biographies is the focus on Beethoven's awareness of current events and ideas, especially his attachment to the ideals of the French Revolution (1789–99; the revolt of the French middle class to end absolute power by French kings) and his faith in the brotherhood of men, as expressed in his life-long goal of composing a version of "Ode to Joy," by Friedrich Schiller (1759–1805), realized at last in the Ninth Symphony. Also frequently mentioned is his genuine love of nature and outdoor life.

No one had ever heard anything like Beethoven's last works; they were too advanced for audiences and even professional musicians for some time after his death in 1827. Beethoven was aware of this. It seems, however, he expected later audiences to have a greater understanding of and appreciation for them. Beethoven reportedly told a visitor who was confused by some of his later pieces, "They are not for you but for a later age."

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## MENACHEM BEGIN

**Born:** August 16, 1913

**Brest-Litovsk, Poland**

**Died:** March 9, 1992

**Jerusalem, Israel**

*Polish-born Israeli prime minister*

Menachem Begin was active in both the movement to establish an independent Jewish state in Palestine and in the early Israeli government. After serving many years in the Knesset (the Israeli legislature), Begin became Israel's prime minister in 1977.

### Early years

Menachem Begin was born the son of Zeev-Dov and Hassia Begin in Brest-Litovsk, White Russia (later Poland), on August 16, 1913. He was educated at the Mizrahi Hebrew School and later studied law at the University of Warsaw in Warsaw, Poland. Begin had witnessed many acts of violence against Jews in Europe. He went to work for a group associated with the Revisionist Zion-

ist Movement, which Vladimir Jabotinsky had founded. The movement called for the creation of an independent Jewish state in Palestine, which at that time was controlled by Great Britain.

In 1939 Begin married Aliza Arnold, with whom he had three children. Later that year the British moved to put limits on the immigration (coming to a country of which one is not a native) of Jews to Palestine. Begin organized a protest in Warsaw in response and was imprisoned by the Polish police. Begin escaped, but he was arrested in 1940 by Soviet authorities. He was held in Siberia from 1940 to 1941, but was released because he was a Polish citizen. In 1942 Begin arrived in Palestine as part of the Polish army.

### ***Active in Palestine***

In 1943, after his release from the Polish army, Begin became commander of the Irgun Tzevai Leumi, a military organization dedicated to the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine. He declared "armed warfare" against the government in Palestine at the beginning of 1944, and led a determined struggle against the British. With the independence of the State of Israel in 1948, Begin founded the Herut (Freedom) Party and represented it in the Knesset of Israel, starting with its first meetings in 1949. He became known as a gifted public speaker, writer, and political leader.

Begin remained in the legislature until he joined the Government of National Unity on the eve of the Six-Day War of June 1967. In that war Israeli forces gained control from Arab groups of two major sections of Palestine. Begin and several others resigned from the government in August 1970 over opposi-



*Menachem Begin.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

tion to Israeli acceptance of U.S. Secretary of State William Rogers' peace proposal, which suggested that Israel should return territories taken over during the Six-Day War. Begin stayed active in politics as leader of the Likud group that opposed the ruling party.

### ***As prime minister***

In May 1977 Begin became Israel's prime minister. In November of that year he became the first Israeli prime minister to meet with an Arab head of state, when he welcomed Egyptian President Anwar Sadat (1918–1981) to Jerusalem. In March 1979 he and Sadat signed the Egypt-Israel peace



treaty on the White House lawn in Washington, D.C. For Begin, and for Israel, it was an important but difficult accomplishment. Although it brought peace with Israel's main enemy, it forced Israel to give up some of the land for which it had fought.

Begin again became prime minister after the Knesset elections of 1981. In June 1982 the Israelis invaded Lebanon, causing a war that led to much criticism from other countries, including the United States. Many of these problems eased over time, but the effects of the war were felt long after Begin retired from public life. Still, he remained the most popular of Israeli politicians. The standard of living in Israel rose under his rule, and although the United States and Israel often disagreed about the issues of the Arab-Israeli conflict, assistance and political support from the United States to Israel rose to all-time high levels while Begin was in office.

### **Later years**

Begin's decision to resign as prime minister of Israel in September 1983 brought to an end a major era in Israeli politics. It was a shock to Israelis despite Begin's earlier statements that he would retire from politics at age seventy. Begin apparently believed that he could no longer perform his tasks as he felt he ought to. Plus, he seemed to be deeply affected by both the death of his wife the previous year and by the continuing losses of Israeli forces in Lebanon. Begin spent most of his remaining years in his apartment, and was seldom seen in public. Often he left home only to attend memorial services for his wife or to visit the hospital. He died of complications from a heart attack on March 9, 1992, in Jerusalem.

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## ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL

**Born:** March 3, 1847

**Edinburgh, Scotland**

**Died:** August 2, 1922

**Baddeck, Nova Scotia, Canada**

*Scottish-born American inventor*

Alexander Graham Bell, Scottish-born American inventor and teacher of the deaf, is best known for perfecting the telephone to transmit, or send, vocal messages using electricity. The telephone began a new age in communications technology.

### **The young man**

Alexander Graham Bell was born on March 3, 1847, in Edinburgh, Scotland. His father, Alexander Melville Bell, was an expert on the mechanics of the voice and on elocution (the art of public speaking). His grandfather, Alexander Bell, was an elocution professor. Bell's mother, Eliza, was hard of hearing but became an accomplished pianist (as well as a painter), and Bell took an interest in music. Eliza taught Alexander, who was the middle of three brothers, until he was ten

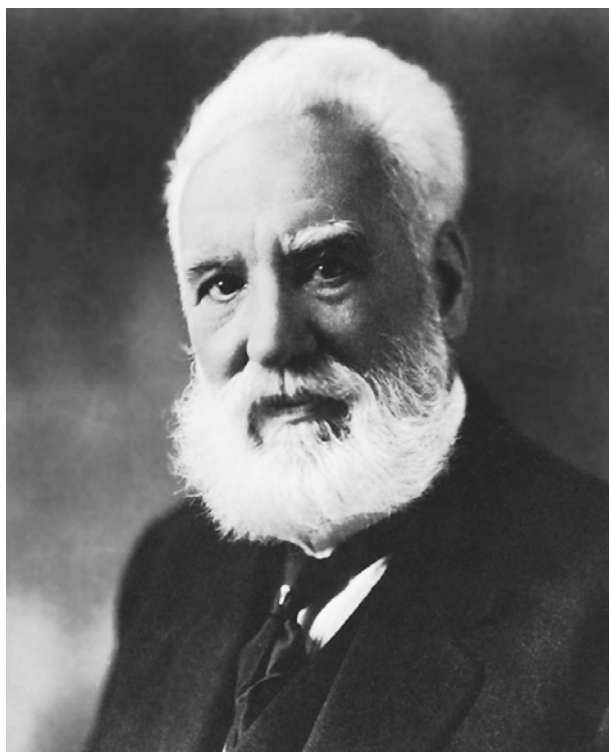
years old. When he was a youth he took a challenge from a mill operator and created a machine that removed the husks from grain. He would later call it his first invention.

After studying at the University of Edinburgh and University College, London, England, Bell became his father's assistant. He taught the deaf to talk by adopting his father's system of visible speech (illustrations of speaking positions of the lips and tongue). In London he studied Hermann Ludwig von Helmholtz's (1821–1894) experiments with tuning forks and magnets to produce complex sounds. In 1865 Bell made scientific studies of the resonance (vibration) of the mouth while speaking.

Both of Bell's brothers had died of tuberculosis (a fatal disease that attacks the lungs). In 1870 his parents, in search of a healthier climate, convinced him to move with them to Brantford, Ontario, Canada. In 1871 he went to Boston, Massachusetts, to teach at Sarah Fuller's School for the Deaf, the first such school in the world. He also tutored private students, including Helen Keller (1880–1968). As professor of voice and speech at Boston University in 1873, he initiated conventions for teachers of the deaf. Throughout his life he continued to educate the deaf, and he founded the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf.

### ***Inventing the telephone***

From 1873 to 1876 Bell experimented with many inventions, including an electric speaking telegraph (the telephone). The funds came from the fathers of two of his students. One of these men, Gardiner Hubbard, had a deaf daughter, Mabel, who later became Bell's wife.



*Alexander Graham Bell.*

To help deaf children, Bell experimented in the summer of 1874 with a human ear and attached bones, magnets, smoked glass, and other things. He conceived the theory of the telephone: that an electric current can be made to change its force just as the pressure of air varies during sound production. That same year he invented a telegraph that could send several messages at once over one wire, as well as a telephonic-telegraphic receiver.

Bell supplied the ideas; Thomas Watson created the equipment. Working with tuned reeds and magnets to make a receiving instrument and sender work together, they transmitted a musical note on June 2, 1875. Bell's telephone receiver and transmitter were iden-

tical: a thin disk in front of an electromagnet (a magnet created by an electric current).

On February 14, 1876, Bell's attorney filed for a patent, or a document guaranteeing a person the right to make and sell an invention for a set number of years. The exact hour was not recorded, but on that same day Elisha Gray (1835–1901) filed his caveat (intention to invent) for a telephone. The U.S. Patent Office granted Bell the patent for the “electric speaking telephone” on March 7. It was the most valuable single patent ever issued. It opened a new age in communications technology.

Bell continued his experiments to improve the telephone's quality. By accident, Bell sent the first sentence, “Watson, come here; I want you,” on March 10, 1876. The first public demonstration occurred at the American Academy of Arts and Sciences convention in Boston two months later. Bell's display at the Philadelphia Centennial Exposition a month later gained more publicity. Emperor Dom Pedro of Brazil (1825–1891) ordered one hundred telephones for his country. The telephone, which had been given only eighteen words in the official catalog of the exposition, suddenly became the “star” attraction.

### *Establishing an industry*

Repeated demonstrations overcame public doubts. The first two-way outdoor conversation was between Boston and Cambridge, Massachusetts, by Bell and Watson on October 9, 1876. In 1877 the first telephone was installed in a private home; a conversation took place between Boston and New York using telegraph lines; in May the first switchboard (a central machine used to connect different telephone lines), devised by E. T. Holmes in Boston, was a burglar alarm con-

necting five banks; and in July the first organization to make the telephone a commercial venture, the Bell Telephone Company, was formed. That year, while on his honeymoon, Bell introduced the telephone to England and France.

The first commercial switchboard was set up in New Haven, Connecticut, in 1878, the same year Bell's New England Telephone Company was organized. Charles Scribner improved switchboards, with more than five hundred inventions. Thomas Cornish, a Philadelphia electrician, had a switchboard for eight customers and published a one-page telephone directory in 1878.

### *Questioning Bell's patent*

Other inventors had been at work between 1867 and 1873. Professor Elisha Gray (of Oberlin College in Ohio) invented an “automatic self-adjusting telegraph relay,” installed it in hotels, and made telegraph printers. He also tried to perfect a speaking telephone from his multiple-current telegraph. The Gray and Batton Manufacturing Company of Chicago developed into the Western Electric Company.

Another competitor was Professor Amos E. Dolbear, who insisted that Bell's telephone was only an improvement on an 1860 invention by Johann Reis, a German who had experimented with pigs' ears and may have made a telephone. Dolbear's own instrument could transmit tones but not voice quality.

In 1879 Western Union, with its American Speaking Telephone Company, ignored Bell's patents and hired Thomas Edison (1847–1931), along with Dolbear and Gray, as inventors and improvers. Later that year

Bell and Western Union formed a joint company, with the latter getting 20 percent for providing wires, equipment, and the like. Theodore Vail, organizer of Bell Telephone Company, combined six companies in 1881. The modern transmitter was born mainly in the work of Emile Berliner and Edison in 1877 and Francis Blake in 1878. Blake's transmitter was later sold to Bell.

The claims of other inventors were contested. Daniel Drawbaugh, who was from rural Pennsylvania and had little formal schooling, almost won a legal battle with Bell in 1884 but was defeated by a four-to-three vote in the Supreme Court (the highest court in the United States). This claim made for the most exciting lawsuit over telephone patents. Altogether the Bell Company was involved in 587 lawsuits, of which five went to the Supreme Court. Bell won every case. The defending argument for Bell was that no competitor had claimed to be original until seventeen months after Bell's patent. Also, at the 1876 Philadelphia Exposition, major electrical scientists, especially Lord Kelvin (1824–1907), the world's leading authority, had declared Bell's invention to be “new.” Professors, scientists, and researchers defended Bell, pointing to his lifelong study of the ear and his books and lectures on speech mechanics.

### ***The Bell Company***

The Bell Company built the first long-distance line in 1884, connecting Boston and New York. Bell and others organized The American Telephone and Telegraph Company in 1885 to operate other long-distance lines. By 1889 there were 11,000 miles of underground wires in New York City.

The Volta Laboratory was started by Bell in Washington, D.C., with France awarding the Volta Prize money (about \$10,000) for his invention. At the laboratory Bell and his associates worked on various projects during the 1880s, including the photophone, induction balance, audiometer, and phonograph improvements. The photophone transmitted speech by light. The induction balance (electric probe) located metal in the body. The audiometer, used to test a person's hearing, indicated Bell's continued interest in deafness. The first successful phonograph record was produced. The Columbia Gramophone Company made profitable Bell's phonograph records. With the profits Bell established an organization in Washington to study deafness.

### ***Bell's later interests***

Bell was also involved in other activities that took much of his time. The magazine *Science* (later the official publication of the American Association for the Advancement of Science) was founded in 1880 because of Bell's efforts. He made many addresses and published many papers. As National Geographic Society president from 1896 to 1904, he contributed to the success of the society and its publications. In 1898 he became a member of a governing board of the Smithsonian Institution. He was also involved in sheep breeding, hydrodynamics (the study of the forces of fluids, such as water), and projects related to aviation, or the development and design of airplanes.

Aviation was Bell's primary interest after 1895. He aided physicist and astronomer Samuel Langley (1834–1906), who experimented with heavier-than-air flying machines; invented a special kite (1903); and founded

the Aerial Experiment Association (1907), bringing together aviator and inventor Glenn Curtiss (1878–1930), Francis Baldwin, and others. Curtiss provided the motor for Bell's man-carrying kite in 1907.

Bell died in Baddeck, Nova Scotia, Canada, on August 2, 1922. His contribution to the modern world and its technologies was enormous.

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## CLYDE BELLECOURT

**Born:** 1939

**White Earth Reservation, Minnesota**

*Native American tribal activist*

As one of the original founders of the American Indian Movement (AIM), Clyde Bellecourt has been an activist for the rights of Native Americans for many years. Many have questioned Bellecourt's methods, but no one questions his dedication to improving the lives of his people.

### **Early struggles**

Clyde Bellecourt was born in 1939 on the White Earth Indian Reservation in Min-

nesota, one of many tracts of land set aside by the United States government for Native Americans. He was the seventh of twelve children born to Charles and Angeline Bellecourt, who were members of the Ojibwa tribe. His father had fought in World War I (1914–18), a destructive war that involved many European countries and the United States, and suffered injuries that prevented him from working. The family lived in a small house and was very poor.

Bellecourt had problems in school and eventually dropped out. He was angry that Native Americans, if they were talked about in school at all, were usually described as killers or savages. Bellecourt said that he could not consider George Washington (1732–1799) the father of the country because Washington did not look anything like Bellecourt's father or grandfather. After quitting school and failing to find work, he became involved in burglaries and robberies and wound up in prison.

### **Education leads to action**

In prison in Minnesota, Bellecourt had given up hope. He decided to go on a hunger strike, figuring he would die. A fellow inmate brought him a book dealing with his Ojibwa history. Reading the book made Bellecourt proud once again to be a Native American and filled him with hope. He began relating what he learned to his fellow inmates. As he said to Peter Matthiessen in *In the Spirit of Crazy Horse*, "I guess we had the first real Indian Studies program in the country."

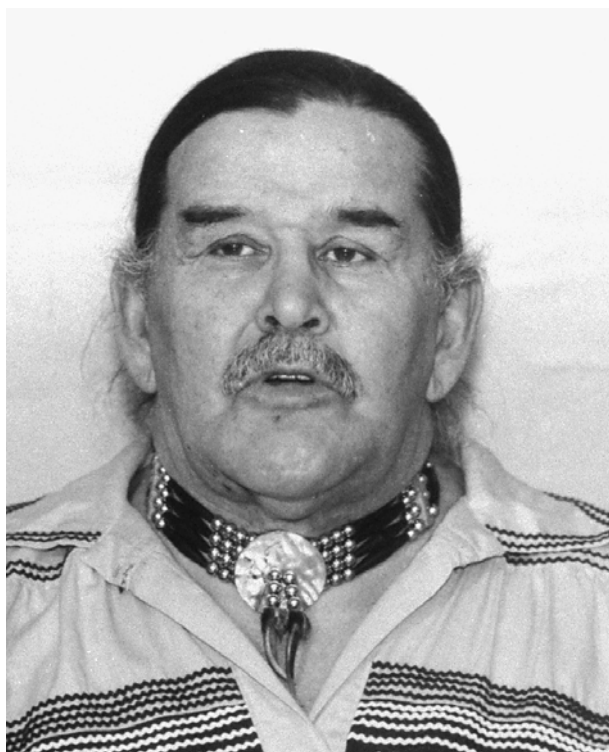
After his release from prison, Bellecourt and two others founded the American Indian Movement (AIM) in 1968 to educate even more people and to work for improved con-

ditions and rights for Native Americans. The organization established job training, education programs and youth centers, forced the government to improve public housing for Indians, and set up schools such as the Heart of the Earth Center for American Indian Education in Minneapolis, Minnesota. The center focused on American Indian history and traditions.

However, in the early 1970s AIM often took extreme measures in its attempts to call attention to the Native American cause. Bellecourt and others presented a list of twenty demands to the U.S. government during an armed takeover of a Bureau of Indian Affairs building in 1972. These demands included a separate government for Native Americans, the return of many lands to their Native American owners, the drawing up of new treaties between the United States and the Native Americans, and the creation of a special agency in Washington, D.C. for the rebuilding of Native American communities. A similar armed takeover occurred in 1973 at Wounded Knee, South Dakota, which had become a national symbol after the release of Dee Brown's book *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee* (1971). While many of the group's demands were not met, these incidents called attention to the problems facing Native Americans and forced the government to address them.

### *Struggles continue*

Over the years, some members of AIM became unhappy with Bellecourt's leadership. In November 1994, Bellecourt and his brother Vernon were banned for life from the movement after an AIM investigation alleged that the brothers had been involved in eight crimes, including drug-related activities and



*Clyde Bellecourt.*

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working secretly with the U.S. government. The brothers denied doing anything wrong, saying the charges were made up by other members of the movement who wanted their power. The American Indian Movement split into two groups as a result.

Bellecourt remains active in trying to improve the lives of Native Americans, emphasizing the need for more and better education. In 2001 he called for changes in the Minneapolis public school system after a study showed that only 15 percent of American Indian students who entered high school in 1996 graduated four years later. Bellecourt is the current director of the Peacemaker Center for

Indian Youth, chairman of the Heart of the Earth Center, and organizer of the National Coalition on Racism in Sports and the Media.

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## SAUL BELLOW

**Born:** July 10, 1915

Lachine, Quebec, Canada

*Canadian-born American author, essayist, and dramatist*

An American author of fiction, essays, and drama, Saul Bellow became famous in 1953 with his novel *The Adventures of Augie March*. He won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1976.

### **Early life**

Saul Bellow was born of Russian immigrant parents in Lachine, Quebec, Canada, on July 10, 1915. He learned to speak Hebrew, Yiddish, and French as well as English. When he was nine his family moved to Chicago, Illinois, and to this city Bellow remained deeply devoted. He was raised in a strict Jewish household, and his mother, who died when he was fifteen, wanted him to become a rabbi (a Jewish master or teacher). After her death

he drifted away from religious study and began to read a wide variety of books. He quickly decided he wanted to be a writer.

After two years at the University of Chicago, Bellow transferred to Northwestern University and obtained a bachelor's degree in anthropology (the study of the origins and behavior of human beings) in 1937. He had wanted to study English literature but was warned that many universities would not hire Jewish professors to teach the subject. Four months after enrolling as a graduate student at the University of Wisconsin, he quit school forever.

During the next decade Bellow held a variety of writing jobs—with the Works Progress Administration (WPA) Writers' Project, the editorial department of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, the Pestalozzi-Froebel Teachers College, and the Merchant Marine. His first story was published in 1941, and he published two novels. *Dangling Man* (1944), in the form of a journal, concerns a young Chicagoan waiting to be drafted into military service. *The Victim* (1947), a more ambitious work, describes a New Yorker struggling with domestic and religious conflicts. Both novels received mixed reviews.

### **Writing career**

After World War II (1939–45) Bellow joined the University of Minnesota English Department, spent a year in Paris, France, and Rome, Italy, and taught briefly at New York University, Princeton University, and Bard College. Above all, however, he concentrated on writing fiction. With the publication of *The Adventures of Augie March* (1953), Bellow won his first National Book Award. Bellow followed it in 1956 with *Seize the Day*,

a collection of three short stories, a one-act play, and a novella (a short novel or long short story). The novella, the title of which is also the title of the volume, is about one day in the life of a middle-aged New Yorker facing a major domestic crisis. Some critics feel that this collection was Bellow's finest work.

In *Henderson the Rain King* (1959) Bellow described an American millionaire's flight from a tangled marriage and his adventures in Africa. His next novel, *Herzog* (1964), won him a second National Book Award and international fame. It portrays Moses Herzog, a middle-aged university professor, and his battles with his faithless wife, his friend, and himself. Through a series of unmailed letters, many of them highly comic, Herzog finally resolves his struggles by achieving self-control.

In 1962 Bellow became a professor at the University of Chicago, a post that allowed him to continue writing fiction and plays. *The Last Analysis* had a brief run on Broadway in 1964. Six short stories, collected in *Mosby's Memoirs and Other Stories* (1968), and his sixth novel, *Mr. Sammler's Planet* (1969), elevated Bellow's reputation. *Humboldt's Gift* (1975) added the Pulitzer Prize and the Nobel Prize for Literature to Bellow's list of awards.

### Later years

Bellow's later novels did not receive the same praise. *The Dean's December* (1982) and *More Die of Heartbreak* (1987) retained his style, but some disliked the bitter tone that had never shown up in previous Bellow works. After 1987 Bellow released a number of novels that met with similarly mixed reviews. Despite the coolness toward his later work, Bellow's best fiction has been compared to the Russian masters, Leo Tolstoy (1828–1910) and



Saul Bellow.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Fyodor Dostoevsky (1821–1881). Robert Penn Warren's review of *Augie March* in *The New Republic* in 1953 sums up reaction to his work: "It is, in a way, a tribute . . . to point out the faults of Saul Bellow's novel, for the faults merely make the virtues more impressive."

In 1995 Bellow nearly died after eating poisonous fish in the Caribbean. After a long, slow recovery, he wrote *Ravelstein*, a novel, which was released in 2000. Also in the year 2000 he was recognized with a lifetime achievement award from the *New Yorker*, and he became a father for the fourth time, at age eighty-four, when his fifth wife gave birth to a daughter.



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## WILLIAM BENNETT

**Born:** July 3, 1943

**Brooklyn, New York**

*American agency director, scholar, teacher,  
and government official*

American teacher and scholar William Bennett was chairman of the National Endowment for the Humanities (1981–85), secretary of the Department of Education (1985–88), and director of the Office of National Drug Control Policy (1989–90). He continues his efforts to improve education and fight drugs, and he is an active voice for traditional values.

**Early life and education**

William John Bennett was born into a middle-class Roman Catholic family in Flatbush (Brooklyn), New York, on July 3, 1943. Describing himself as “streetwise,” he first attended a public school but later transferred to Jesuit-run Holy Cross Boy’s School. His family moved to Washington, D.C., where he

graduated from Gonzaga High School, another Catholic institution. Bennett was mostly raised by his mother, but he also looked up to male American heroes such as actors, athletes, or presidents. He began to believe that, in addition to adult encouragement, heroes were necessary for a child’s moral development. His high school football coach was also a role model of toughness, and he convinced Bennett of the value of sports.

Bennett went to Williams College to play football. He was a lineman who earned the nickname “the ram” from an incident where he butted down a female student’s door. He worked his way through college (and later graduate school) with scholarships, loans, and part-time and summer jobs. Graduating in 1965, he studied philosophy (the search for an understanding of the world and man’s place in it) at the University of Texas, where he earned a doctorate in 1970. He did not study all the time. In 1967 he went on a blind date with singer Janis Joplin, and he also played guitar with a band called Plato and the Guardians. Bennett also taught philosophy and religion at the University of Southern Mississippi for a year. After earning a law degree at Harvard University in 1971, he held several teaching and administrative posts at Boston University from 1971 to 1976.

**Government service**

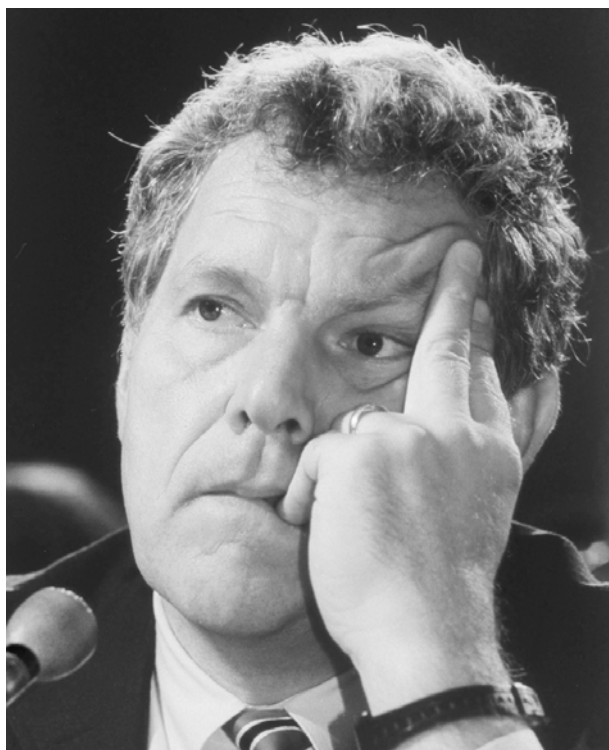
Bennett gained national attention through his involvement with the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) and the National Humanities Faculty, a conservative group whose members believe in maintaining traditional values and institutions as they are. He also wrote articles on various topics. In May

1976 he became executive director of the National Humanities Center, which he had cofounded with Charles Frankel, a philosophy professor from Columbia University, who took the office of president. In 1979 Bennett coauthored *Counting by Race: Equality from the Founding Fathers to Bakke and Weber* with the journalist Terry Eastland. The book attacked affirmative action (a series of programs designed to give special consideration in hiring and education to members of groups who have been discriminated against in the past).

As a registered Democrat, Bennett described himself as open-minded about conservative causes. He worked on the Heritage Fund's *Mandate for Leadership* (1980), a series of recommendations for President-elect Ronald Reagan (1911–). When Bennett became a Republican, Reagan rewarded him by appointing him head of NEH in December 1981. As director, Bennett caused much controversy (dispute over opposing views). He agreed with Reagan's budget cuts for the agency and criticized projects made with NEH funds. With the release of a 1984 report titled *To Reclaim a Legacy: A Report on the Humanities in Higher Education*, Bennett stated that his major goal was to teach students the core of Western values. This earned him the scorn of women's and civil rights groups, as did his refusal to comply with affirmative action programs at NEH. In November 1984 the office of secretary of the Department of Education became open, and Reagan decided to appoint Bennett.

### **Controversy in two jobs**

Bennett caused more controversy as the secretary of the Department of Education than he had at NEH. In his first press confer-



William Bennett.

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ence he supported Reagan's student loan program cuts, saying that some individuals should not go to college. He attacked the educational establishment; said some colleges and universities were overpriced; expressed outrage that student loans were not being repaid; and criticized Stanford University's revised course schedule, which he felt placed less importance on Western civilization in favor of a larger study of world cultures. He remained in the public eye with appearances as a substitute teacher in a number of city schools and with many speeches and articles. He also published more books on education, including *First Lessons: A Report on Elementary*

*Education* (1987), which lists his personal beliefs concerning elementary education. Bennett's focus in education was on the three C's: content, character, and choice.

Bennett resigned from the Department of Education in September 1988 to join a Washington law firm. He had married Mary Elayne Glover late in life (1982) and needed the extra income to support his two sons. The pull of public service proved too great, however. In January 1989 President George Bush (1924–) appointed him head of the Office of National Drug Control Policy with the mission to rid the nation of drugs. Bennett himself was a longtime smoker. He successfully kicked the habit in order to set an example. He pushed for more severe penalties for drug dealers, even suggesting that guilty parties should be beheaded as was done in Saudi Arabia. He urged the use of American military forces in Colombia and Peru to destroy drug supplies, and set a goal of making Washington a drug-free city. Bennett resigned in November 1990 to devote his time to public speaking and journalism.

### **Spokesperson for morality**

In 1993 Bennett published *The Book of Virtues*, a collection of stories, poems, and fables intended to teach values to children. The book sold very well and led him to publish similar books, including *The Moral Compass: Stories for a Life's Journey* (1995). Conservatives in the Republican Party mentioned Bennett as a possible presidential candidate in 1994, but he did not run. Instead, he continued to speak out on issues, such as opposing some popular music and television talk shows that found their way into the 1996 presidential campaign. He was

also popular as a public speaker and served as codirector of Empower America, an organization dedicated to the promotion of conservative ideas.

Bennett continues to work in education as chairman of K12, an Internet-based school. He continues his antidrug work as cochairman of the Partnership for a Drug-Free America with former New York Governor Mario Cuomo. And he continues to speak out about American values and morals. In 1998 he and Senator Joseph Lieberman presented the first "Silver Sewer" Award to Seagram, Inc., for its involvement in the production of offensive television shows and music. In 2002 Bennett published *Why We Fight: Moral Clarity and the War on Terrorism*.

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## INGMAR BERGMAN

**Born:** July 14, 1918

**Uppsala, Sweden**

*Swedish film director*

Ingmar Bergman is widely regarded as one of the greatest directors in the history of motion pictures. His works are

marked by intense characters, as well as intellectual and symbolic content.

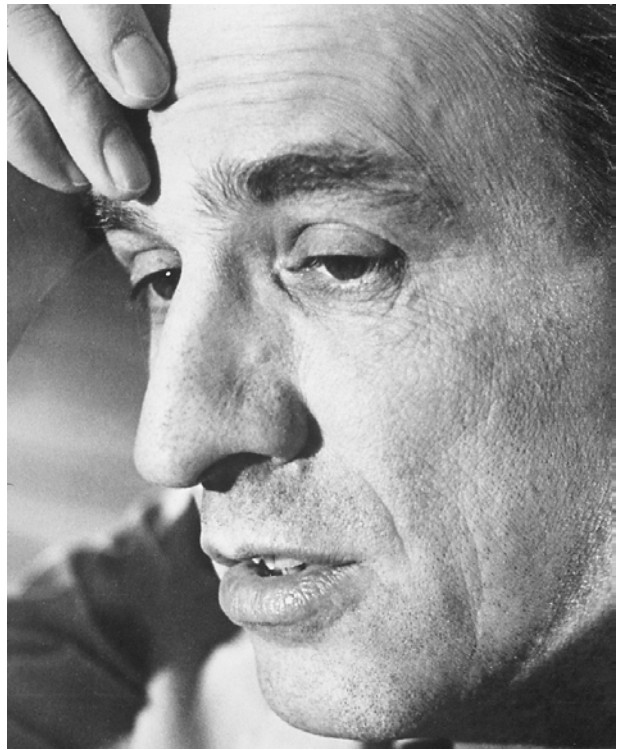
### Early life

Ingmar Bergman was born on July 14, 1918, in Uppsala, Sweden, the son of a Lutheran minister who believed in strict discipline for his children. Raised under these circumstances, Bergman developed a love for movies, which he used as an escape from his rigid upbringing. By the age of six Bergman was making his own movies, primitive works that he pieced together from film scraps. A few years later, after seeing his first stage production, Bergman began producing his own plays for a puppet theater.

In 1937 Bergman entered the University of Stockholm, where he became an active member of the student theatrical group. In 1942, after a brilliant production of William Shakespeare's (1564–1616) *Macbeth*, the aspiring director was appointed to the Swedish Royal Opera. In the years following he divided his talents equally between stage and film efforts.

### Film career

In 1945 Bergman directed his first film, *Crisis*, the story of an unhappy love affair which ends in suicide (taking one's own life). Several films followed closely, but in 1956 Bergman reached the peak of critical and popular praise with *The Seventh Seal*. *The Seventh Seal* is a morality (having to do with the difference between wrong and right) play about a knight who, seeking to satisfy his religious doubts and unravel the mystery of the universe, challenges Death to a game of chess. Even Bergman's critics agree that this film has visual daring with great dramatic power.



Ingmar Bergman.

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A year later Bergman directed *Wild Strawberries*, a touching study of the difference between youth and old age. With his next film, *The Magician* (1959), Bergman returned to his earlier use of symbolism, where objects or events are used to represent something else. It is the story of a group of wandering magicians and their encounters with otherworldly spirits. *The Virgin Spring* followed in 1960, as well as several lesser works.

In 1961 Bergman embarked upon his ambitious trilogy (three works), beginning with *Through a Glass Darkly*, an intense, almost hysterical, study of family violence. The second contribution, *Winter Light* (1962), pres-

ents the emptiness which follows loss of faith. The final portion, *The Silence* (1963), explores the problems of noncommunication. The trilogy is concerned with the problem of God's absence rather than His presence, and with the pain stemming from personal isolation rather than the puzzle of human existence itself. It represents Bergman's increasingly complex view of the world.

### Later works

This sophistication is also evident in the coldly poetic *Persona* (1966). This film tells of a bizarre relationship between a young actress who has lapsed into complete silence and the talkative nurse who cares for her. *The Hour of the Wolf* (1968), about an artist who is haunted by specters (ghosts), marks what some feel is a regrettable return to Bergman's earlier use of mysticism, or a spiritual search.

Due to tax problems Bergman spent much of the 1970s overseas, where he produced work for television in Norway and Germany as well as in Sweden. His major theatrical films of this period include *Cries and Whispers* (1971) and *Autumn Sonata* (1978). Highly regarded among the television work are *Scenes from a Marriage* (1973) and *The Magic Flute* of the same year.

In 1982 Bergman released one of his most autobiographical (having to do with a person's own life) films, the richly detailed *Fanny and Alexander*. Announced as his final film, it brings together many different themes from his previous works and is seen as a powerful summary of his life and career. Since *Fanny and Alexander* Bergman has published an autobiography, *The Magic Lantern* (1988); a novel, *Best Intentions* (1989); and has continued to write and direct for Swedish

television and theater. *Best Intentions* was produced from Bergman's script for Swedish television in 1991.

The year 2001 saw the release of *Faithless*, written by Bergman but directed by actress Liv Ullmann (1939–). Bergman believed the movie's subject—one man's destructive affair with a married woman—was too personal and emotionally draining.

Bergman's reputation has diminished somewhat in recent years, but he is still regarded as one of the great directors, and his films remain among the most widely recognized in the world. Many well-known American directors, such as Woody Allen (1935–), have paid tribute to Bergman in their own films.

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## IRVING BERLIN

**Born:** May 11, 1888

**Temun, Russia**

**Died:** September 22, 1989

**New York, New York**

*Russian-born American composer and songwriter*

The American composer Irving Berlin produced over eight hundred songs, many of which attained worldwide popularity. His patriotic songs, especially “God Bless America,” summed up the feelings of Americans at the time.

### *Early struggles*

Irving Berlin was born Israel Baline in Temun, Russia, on May 11, 1888. He was the youngest of Moses and Leah Lipkin Baline’s eight children. His father, a cantor (a singer in a Jewish place of worship) who gave him singing lessons, was the first to expose Israel to music. The family fled the persecutions (the act of tormenting and harassing regularly) of Jews in Russia in 1893 and settled in New York City. The first years in America were very difficult—at one time every member of the family sold newspapers on the streets. Things got worse when Moses Baline died in 1896. At age fourteen Israel left home and began making money by singing in bars and on the streets of New York. He attended school for two years but had no formal musical education; he never learned to read or write music.

### *First efforts at songwriting*

In 1906 Baline went to work as a singing waiter at a restaurant in New York’s Chinatown. He waited tables and entertained customers by singing popular songs of the time with his own made-up lyrics. It was while working here that he wrote his first song, “Marie from Sunny Italy,” which he worked on together with another restaurant employee. He also changed his name, becoming I. Berlin, lyricist (songwriter). This was the name he chose to appear on the



*Irving Berlin.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

sheet music when the song was published shortly after in 1907.

Berlin began to gain recognition as a clever lyric writer. He provided words for “Queenie, My Own,” “Dorando,” and “Sadie Salome, Go Home.” The last was something of a success, and he was hired by a publisher to write words for new songs. Although he had difficulty writing English and had to have someone who understood musical notation (characters and symbols) write down the melodies that he created with one finger, within a year Berlin was established as a rising talent in the popular-music business.

Around this time music publishers became interested in ragtime, the highly original creation of African American musicians in the South and Midwest during the 1880s and 1890s. Berlin contributed lyrics—and a few tunes—to several mild ragtime songs. In 1911 he wrote the words and music for “Alexander’s Ragtime Band,” which started toward worldwide popularity when sung by Emma Carus in Chicago, Illinois, that year. It is one of the most famous of all “ragtime” songs, with its sheet music having sold over one million copies.

### **Created musicals**

Berlin’s fame continued to grow. He wrote his first complete musical score in 1914, *Watch Your Step*, followed by *Stop, Look, Listen*. In the Army during World War I (1914–18) he wrote a successful soldier show entitled *Yip, Yip, Yaphank* (1919), which contained “Oh, How I Hate to Get Up in the Morning.” In 1919 he founded his own music publishing company, Irving Berlin, Inc.

Berlin’s most successful shows included *Ziegfeld Follies* (1919, 1920, 1927), *Music Box Revues* (1921–24), *As Thousands Cheer* (1933), *This Is the Army* (1942), *Annie Get Your Gun* (1946), and *Call Me Madam* (1950). His best-known musical scores for films include *Top Hat* (1935), *Follow the Fleet* (1936), and *Holiday Inn* (1942). Among Berlin’s best-known songs are “White Christmas” and “God Bless America,” which are holiday favorites to this day.

Berlin’s hundredth birthday was celebrated in a televised special from Carnegie Hall. When he died in New York on September 22, 1989, he was remembered as a sym-

bol of the nation. As fellow songwriter Jerome Kern was quoted in Alexander Woollcott’s biography of Berlin: “Irving Berlin has no place in American Music. He is American Music.”

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## LEONARD BERNSTEIN

**Born: August 25, 1918**

**Lawrence, Massachusetts**

**Died: October 14, 1990**

**New York, New York**

*American composer, conductor, and pianist*

Leonard Bernstein was an American composer (writer of music), conductor, and pianist. His special gift of bridging the gap between the concert hall and the world of Broadway made him one of the most glamorous musical figures of his day.

### **Childhood**

Leonard Bernstein was born Louis Bernstein in Lawrence, Massachusetts, on August 25, 1918, to Russian-Jewish immigrants. A

shy and sickly child, Louis Bernstein fell in love with music after a relative gave his family an old, weathered upright piano. He began taking piano lessons and changed his name to Leonard at the age of sixteen.

The family soon moved to Boston, Massachusetts, where Leonard studied at Boston Latin School. He excelled in academics and graduated in 1935. From there Bernstein went on to Harvard University, where he studied business. Although he had taken piano lessons from the age of ten and engaged in musical activities at college, his musical training began in 1939 at the Curtis Institute. The following summer, at the Berkshire Music Festival, he met Serge Koussevitsky, who was to be his chief mentor (teacher) during his early years.

### ***A sudden star***

On Koussevitsky's recommendation two years later, Artur Rodzinski made Bernstein his assistant conductor at the New York Philharmonic. The suddenness of this appointment, coming after two somewhat directionless years, was replaced only by the dramatic events of November 14, 1943. With less than 24 hours' notice and no rehearsal, Bernstein substituted for the sick Bruno Walter (1876–1962) at Carnegie Hall and led the Philharmonic through a difficult program that he had barely studied. By the concert's end the audience knew it had witnessed the debut of a born conductor. The *New York Times* ran a front-page story the following morning, and Bernstein's career as a public figure had begun. During the next few years he was guest conductor of every major orchestra in the United States until, in 1958, he became music director of the New York Philharmonic.

Bernstein's career might have filled several average lives. It is surprising that one who had never given a solo recital (performance) would be recognized as a pianist. Nevertheless, he was recognized as such from his appearances as conductor-pianist in performances of Mozart concertos and the Ravel *Concerto in G*.

### ***Bernstein as composer***

As a composer Bernstein was a controversial (open to dispute) figure. His large works, including the symphonies *Jeremiah* (1943), *Age of Anxiety* (1949), and *Kaddish* (1963), are not considered masterpieces. Yet



they are skillfully shaped and show his sensitivity to small changes of musical variety. He received more praise for his Broadway musicals. The vivid *On the Town* (1944) and *Wonderful Town* (1952) were followed by *Candide* (1956), which, though not a box-office success, is considered by many to be Bernstein's most original score. *West Side Story* (1957) received international praise. Bernstein's music, with its strong contrasts of violence and tenderness, determines the feeling of the show and contributes to its special place in the history of American musical theater.

His role as an educator, in seminars at Brandeis University (1952–1957) and in teaching duties at Tanglewood, should not be overlooked. He found an even larger audience through television, where his animation and distinguished simplicity had an immediate appeal. Two books of essays, *Joy of Music* (1959) and *Infinite Variety of Music* (1966), were direct products of television presentations.

### *Influence as a conductor*

Bernstein had his greatest impact as a conductor. His appearances overseas—with or without the Philharmonic—brought about an excitement approaching frenzy. These responses were due in part to Bernstein's energy and emotion. It is generally agreed that his readings of twentieth-century American scores showed a dedication and authority rarely approached by other conductors of his time. His performances and recordings also ushered in a revival of interest in the music of Austrian composer Gustav Mahler (1860–1911).

There was some surprise when, in 1967, Bernstein resigned (stepped down) as music

director of the Philharmonic. But it was in keeping with his nature and the diversity of his activities that he sought new channels of expression. After leaving the Philharmonic Bernstein traveled extensively, serving as guest conductor for many of the major symphonies of the world, including the Vienna Philharmonic and the Berlin Philharmonic. He became something of a fixture in those cities in the last few decades of his life.

### *Controversy*

More controversially, Bernstein also became caught up in the cultural upheaval of the late 1960s. He angered many when he claimed all music, other than pop, seemed old-fashioned. Politically, too, he drew criticism. When his wife hosted a fund-raiser for the Black Panthers (an extreme African American political group) in 1970, charges of anti-Semitism (against the Jewish people) were leveled against Bernstein himself. Press reports caused severe damage to his reputation. Bernstein also brought criticism with his stance against the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war in which American forces aided South Vietnam in their struggle against North Vietnam). His activism ultimately led J. Edgar Hoover (1895–1975) and the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) to monitor his activities and associations.

In 1971 *Mass: A Theatre Piece for Singers, Players and Dancers* premiered at the Kennedy Center in Washington, D.C. It was, according to biographer Humphrey Burton, “the closest [Bernstein] ever came to achieving a synthesis [blending together] between Broadway and the concert hall.” The huge cast performed songs in styles ranging from

rock to blues to gospel. *Mass* debuted on Broadway later that year.

### Later works

Later Bernstein compositions include the dance drama, *Dybbuk* (1974); *1600 Pennsylvania Avenue* (1976), a musical about the White House that was a financial and critical disaster; the song cycle *Songfest: A Cycle of American Poems for Six Singers and Orchestra* (1977); and the opera *A Quiet Place* (1983, revised 1984).

In the 1980s Bernstein continued his hectic schedule of international appearances and supporting social concerns. He gave concerts to mark the fortieth anniversary of the bombing of Hiroshima (which brought an end to America's struggle with Japan during World War II [1939–45]) and a benefit for the research of acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; an incurable disease that attacks the body's immune system). On Christmas Day, 1989, Bernstein led an international orchestra in Berlin, which was in the midst of celebrating the collapse of the Berlin Wall (a wall that stood for more than three decades and separated East Berlin from West). In a typically grand gesture, Bernstein changed the words of "Ode to Joy" to "Ode to Freedom."

Despite health problems Bernstein continued to tour the world in 1990 before returning to Tanglewood for a concert on August 19. He had first conducted a professional orchestra there in 1940, and this performance, fifty years later, was to be his last. He died in New York City, on October 14, 1990, of a heart attack brought on by emphysema (a breathing condition) and other complications.

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## CHUCK BERRY

**Born:** October 18, 1926

**San Jose, California**

*African American singer, musician, and songwriter*

Chuck Berry, known as the "father of rock and roll," has been a major influence on popular music. Though his career and life reached great peaks and declined to low valleys, he has survived while his contemporaries (others from the same time period) have vanished.

### Early years

Charles Edward Anderson Berry was born on October 18, 1926, in San Jose, California. His father was a carpenter. Shortly after his birth, the family (he had three sisters and two brothers) moved to St. Louis, Missouri, where they lived a middle-class life. Berry sang in a church choir and a school glee club and took up the guitar in junior high school, learning how to play on his own. Before he could graduate from high school, Berry was arrested and convicted of armed robbery and served three years in a reform



Chuck Berry.

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

school. A year after his release in October 1947, he was married and started a family.

### **Music career**

Berry worked as a carpenter and a hair stylist after he was married, but he also continued to play guitar. In late 1952 a piano player named Johnnie Johnson called and asked him to play a New Year's Eve show at the Cosmopolitan Club in St. Louis. The band would play steadily at the club for the next three years. Berry's influence changed not only the band's name (to the Chuck Berry Combo) but also its style. The music was a mostly fast-paced combination of country,

pop, and rhythm and blues. Berry also admired the comical sense of singer Louis Jordan, which he added to his performances.

In 1955, on the advice of blues great Muddy Waters (1915–1983), Berry contacted Leonard and Phil Chess, owners of Chess Records in Chicago, Illinois. They were interested in the young artist and put him in the studio. Within a few months one of Berry's songs, "Maybellene," was a hit. He went on to have a string of top ten hits, including "Roll Over Beethoven," "Rock and Roll Music," "Johnny B. Goode," and "Carol." Berry was also a popular live performer. He was known for his "duck walk," which he created as a child "scooting forward" under a table to chase a ball. Berry began to spend some of his newfound wealth—around 1957 he opened Berry Park in Wentzville, Missouri. With a guitar-shaped swimming pool, golf course, hotel rooms, and nightclub, it was, next to his fleet of Cadillacs, his pride and joy.

### **Problems arise**

Things went smoothly until 1961, when Berry was found guilty of transporting a teenage girl across a state line for immoral purposes. He spent from February 1962 until October 1963 behind bars in Springfield, Missouri. During his prison term he took courses to complete his high school education and wrote songs such as "Tulane," "No Particular Place To Go," and "Nadine." By the time Berry was released from jail, groups such as the Beatles were recording versions of Berry classics and introducing his music to new audiences.

By the mid-1960s, though, Berry's type of rock was losing ground to artists such as Eric Clapton (1945–) and Jimi Hendrix

(1942–1970) who were trying to break new ground. A switch from Chess to Mercury Records (1966–69) did little to help Berry. He continued touring without a regular backup band, using pickup bands made up of local musicians. In 1972 Berry, back with Chess, produced his biggest hit, “My Ding-a-Ling.” It topped the charts on both sides of the Atlantic, selling two million copies. Berry had hit paydirt, but this only led to another run-in with the law. In 1979 he spent three months in a California prison after being convicted of failing to pay income tax.

### Later years

Berry’s legal troubles continued into his later years. In 1990 the police, acting on a tip that he was selling cocaine, raided his estate. The charges were later dropped. Berry was also involved in a class-action lawsuit brought by women who claimed they had been videotaped in the bathrooms of Berry Park without their consent. The lawsuit was settled out of court. Meanwhile, more collections of Berry’s hits were released, including a live recording released in 1995.

While Chuck Berry’s career has had peaks and valleys, he has survived while most of his contemporaries are long gone. Berry has been honored with both a star in the Hollywood Walk of Fame and an election to the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame. In 2000 he was honored for lifetime achievement at the Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts in Washington, D.C. And he continues to perform, reportedly accepting no less than \$10,000 per show and playing for no more than forty-five minutes.

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## MARY McLEOD BETHUNE

**Born:** July 10, 1875

**Mayesville, South Carolina**

**Died:** May 18, 1955

**Daytona Beach, Florida**

*African American educator*

Mary McLeod Bethune, an African American teacher, was one of the great educators in United States history. She was a leader of women, an adviser to several American presidents, and a powerful champion of equality among races.

### Early life and education

Mary McLeod was born in Mayesville, South Carolina. Her parents, Samuel and Patsy McLeod, were former slaves, as were most of her brothers and sisters. (Mary was the fifteenth of seventeen children.) After her parents were freed, they saved up and bought a small farm of their own. Mary helped her parents on the family farm. When she was eleven years old, she entered a school established by a missionary from the

was very popular. Her classmates looked to her as a leader. After graduating in 1893 she attended the Moody Bible Institute in Chicago, Illinois.

### *Career as an educator*

After graduation from the Moody Bible Institute, Mary wished to become a missionary in Africa. However, she was told that African Americans were not allowed to take positions like that. She became an instructor at the Presbyterian Mission School in Mayesville in 1896 and later at Haines Institute in Augusta, Georgia, in 1896 and 1897. While she was working at Kindell Institute in Sumpter, South Carolina, in 1897 and 1898, she met Albertus Bethune, whom she later married and had a son with. Her devotion to the education of African American children caused problems with the marriage, however, and the couple eventually separated.

In 1904 the construction of the Florida East Coast Railroad brought hundreds of African Americans to the area looking for work. Bethune saw a need for education to improve the lives of these people. She began her career as an educator in earnest when she rented a two-story house in Daytona Beach, Florida, and began the difficult task of establishing a school for African American girls. Thus, in an era when most African American children received little or no education, the Daytona Literary and Industrial School for Training Negro Girls was begun in October 1904, with six pupils (five girls and her own son). There was no equipment—crates were used for desks, charcoal took the place of pencils, and ink came from crushed berries.

Presbyterian Church. She walked five miles to and from school each day, then spent her evenings teaching everything she had learned to the rest of her family.

Later Mary received a scholarship to attend Scotia Seminary, a school for African American girls in Concord, North Carolina. She was strongly influenced by both white and black teachers there and met some of the people with whom she would work closely later. Although she was very serious about her studies, this did not prevent her from becoming a lively dancer and developing a lasting love of music. Dynamic and alert, she

At first Bethune did everything herself—teaching, administrative duties, handling the money, and keeping the school clean. She also searched garbage dumps for items that the school could restore and use, such as furniture and pieces of wood. Later she was able to secure a staff, many of whom worked loyally for her for many years. To help pay for expansion of the school, Bethune and her pupils baked pies and made ice cream to sell to nearby construction workers. In addition to her regular classes, Bethune organized classes for the children of turpentine workers. In these ways she satisfied her desire to serve as a missionary.

As the school at Daytona grew, it needed more money to run successfully. Bethune began to seek donations from anywhere she could. In 1912 she interested James M. Gamble of the Procter and Gamble Company of Cincinnati, Ohio, who contributed to the school and served as chairman of its board of trustees until his death. In 1923 Bethune's school for girls merged with Cookman Institute of Jacksonville, Florida, a school for boys. The new school became known as Bethune-Cookman Collegiate Institute, soon renamed Bethune-Cookman College. Bethune served as president of the college until her retirement in 1942. She remained a trustee of the college to the end of her life. By 1955 the college had a faculty (teachers and administrative staff) of one hundred and a student enrollment of over one thousand.

### ***Other activities***

Bethune's business activities were confined to the Central Life Insurance Company of Tampa, Florida, of which she was president for several years; the Afro-American Life

Insurance Company of Jacksonville, which she served as director; and the Bethune-Volusia Beach Corporation, a recreation area and housing development she founded in 1940. In addition she wrote numerous magazine and newspaper articles and contributed chapters to several books. In 1932 she founded and organized the National Council of Negro Women and became its president. By 1955 the organization had a membership of eight hundred thousand.

Bethune also gained national recognition in 1936, when President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945) appointed her director of African American affairs in the National Youth Administration and a special adviser on minority affairs. She served for eight years and supervised the development of employment opportunities and recreational facilities for African American youth throughout the United States. She also served as special assistant to the secretary of war during World War II (1939–45). In the course of her government assignments she became a close friend of Eleanor Roosevelt (1884–1962). During her long career Bethune received many honorary (received without fulfilling the usual requirements) degrees and awards, including the Haitian Medal of Honor and Merit (1949), the highest award of the Haitian government. Mary McLeod Bethune died in Daytona Beach on May 18, 1955, of a heart attack. She was buried on the campus of Bethune-Cookman College.

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## BENAZIR BHUTTO

**Born:** June 21, 1953

**Karachi, Pakistan**

*Pakistani prime minister*

**B**enazir Bhutto became prime minister of Pakistan in 1988. She was the first woman in modern times to head the government of an Islamic state, and she followed her father, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, who served as prime minister from 1971 to 1977.

### *Political family*

Benazir Bhutto was born in Karachi, Pakistan, on June 21, 1953, the first of four children of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto and Nusrat Bhutto. Benazir's parents were often away from home during her childhood on business related to her father's different jobs within the Pakistani government. Although the Bhutto family followed the Muslim religion, Benazir attended Catholic schools. She was also tutored at home in nonreligious subjects, the Muslim faith, and Arabic.

Benazir Bhutto went to the United States when she was sixteen and attended Radcliffe College in Cambridge, Massachusetts, where she earned a degree in government. At this time she experienced quite a different culture from her Pakistani home. While she was at Cambridge, her father became prime minister of Pakistan. Between 1973 and 1977 Bhutto attended Oxford University in Oxford, England. In December 1976 she was elected president of Oxford Union, becoming the first Asian woman to head that famous debating society.

### *Voice of democracy*

In 1977 Zulfikar Bhutto was arrested and his government was taken over by General Zia ul-Haq (1924–1988), who declared martial law (the exercise of control by military officials over an area). Although many questioned the verdict, Benazir Bhutto's father was found guilty of plotting to kill a political opponent and was hanged in 1979. Bhutto decided to work to restore democracy to her country, although she and her mother were often arrested. She traveled widely, criticizing the Zia government for its violations of civil and human rights. Bhutto urged her supporters to avoid violence, preferring to gain power through the political process.

Martial law ended in December 1985, but the government that Zia, as president and army chief of staff, had installed did not allow free elections. Hoping to revive the campaign for representative government, Bhutto returned to Pakistan in April 1986. She traveled across the country and attracted large crowds of supporters. Bhutto also married Asif Ali Zardari in December 1987. The son of a politically active and wealthy family, Zardari's background was similar to that of his wife—not surprising since it was a traditional arranged marriage. They had two children.

### *Becomes prime minister*

After Zia died suddenly in August 1988, Bhutto led the People's Party to victory in elections held in November and became prime minister. It was difficult for her to make the kinds of changes she wanted, however. For example, she was unable to change laws that degraded women because she feared losing the support of religious groups, many of whom believed it was “un-Islamic”

for a woman to be the head of government in the first place. She also had to be careful in dealing with the military, which she depended on to help control ethnic and regional disorders and violence in Pakistan. Bhutto also had little success in improving education and health care and in cleaning up government corruption (unlawful conduct).

To her credit Bhutto took steps to restore basic human rights. Restrictions on the press were lifted, and unions and student groups were allowed to gather freely. She also won respect by outsmarting her opponents in their attempts to oust her from office. Bhutto emphasized economic growth (increase in the production, distribution, and use of goods and services) and argued for less government influence in the economy. She also demonstrated skill in winning international support for Pakistan and sought improved relations with India.

### **No job security**

In August 1990 President Ghulam Ishaq Khah, supported by the Pakistan military, dismissed Bhutto from office, claiming that her rule had been corrupt and had abused its power. Her husband was also arrested on several charges, including kidnapping. In elections soon afterward, Bhutto's party suffered a major defeat. Nawaz Sharif, a conservative (one who prefers to keep things as they are) businessman, was named prime minister. Bhutto vowed to return to office and spent the next few years trying to regain support. She was again elected as prime minister of Pakistan in October 1993.

In November 1996, however, Bhutto was ousted and accused of corruption for a second time by Farooq Leghari, the man she



*Benazir Bhutto.*

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had chosen for president. After failing to regain power in elections held in February 1997, she claimed that the elections were fixed and said she no longer desired the prime minister's post. In April 1999 Bhutto was sentenced to five years in jail, banned from politics for five years, and fined \$8.6 million on charges of corruption during her last term in office. Her husband received the same sentence. Bhutto maintained her innocence, and in April 2001 the Pakistani Supreme Court ordered new trials for both her and her husband.

Despite the fact that Bhutto remained in exile from Pakistan, in autumn 2001 she



traveled to India to campaign for a return to politics in her home country. At the time she planned to enter the race for prime minister of Pakistan in the October 2002 elections. In spring 2002, Pakistani President Pervez Musharraf (1943–) stated that Benazir Bhutto would not be allowed to become a candidate in the elections.

Bhutto continues to claim that she is innocent of corruption charges and remains involved in the politics of Pakistan as the leader of a Pakistani political group.

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## OWEN BIEBER

**Born:** December 28, 1929

**Grand Rapids, Michigan**

*American union leader*

From 1983 to 1995 Owen Bieber was president of the United Automobile, Aerospace and Agricultural Implement Workers of America, the third-largest labor union in the United States. He was a key figure in the U.S. auto industry during a period of dramatic change.

### **Early years**

Owen Bieber, the son of Albert F. and Minnie (Schwartz) Bieber, was born in North Dorr, Michigan, on December 28, 1929. After graduating from Catholic grade school and high school in 1948, he went to work at McNerney Spring and Wire Company in nearby Grand Rapids, Michigan, the same auto supply plant where his father worked. Bieber was already a large man, and his first job was bending by hand the thick border wire on car seats. A year later, at age nineteen, Bieber was elected as an officer of his plant's union, United Automobile Workers (UAW) Local 687. Bieber began to work his way up the union ranks in Grand Rapids. By 1955 he was elected to the local bargaining committee and was involved in talks on local plant issues. In 1956 he was elected president of the local chapter. Bieber, a devoted Democrat, also worked on behalf of Senator John Kennedy's (1917–1963) campaign for the U.S. presidency in 1960.

Bieber's hard work brought him to the attention of leaders at the UAW's regional office in Grand Rapids, and he continued to move up. In 1972 he was appointed director of the region, a position he held until 1980, when he was elected a vice president of the UAW and moved to the union's Detroit headquarters. Bieber served as director of the UAW's General Motors (GM) department, the union's largest department with more than four hundred thousand members. It was Bieber's first public exposure beyond Michigan, as GM's plants stretched across the country. By early 1982, because of low car sales and foreign competition, Bieber found himself agreeing to the first contract in the history of GM in which workers made con-

cessions (gave back things already won). GM workers agreed, among other things, to put off annual wage increases and accept less paid time off the job. The workers approved the contract by only a slim margin.

### *Elected president*

In 1983 the UAW was forced to find a replacement for then-president Douglas Fraser, who was retiring. Bieber, who was known for being tight-lipped, was the last of three men to declare his interest in the job in late 1982. Nonetheless, he was selected by the union's executive board in a fifteen to eleven vote. The nomination, supported by a vote of delegates to the UAW's constitutional convention, surprised some who noted Bieber's shyness and lack of experience with the national labor scene. Bieber's first three-year term was highlighted by the job security measures he won in the contracts with the Big Three automakers—General Motors Corporation, Ford Motor Company, and Chrysler Corporation. In 1985 Bieber also won a more than \$2,100 payback for each Chrysler worker for concessions given to the automaker when it was struggling to stay in business from 1979 to 1983. This made Bieber very popular among UAW officials and workers.

But there were problems in Bieber's first term, most notably the pullout of the 120,000 Canadian UAW members in 1985. The action, which followed friction between Bieber and Canadian UAW leader Bob White during 1984's GM contract talks in Canada, deprived the union of its international image for the first time in its history. U.S. automakers were badly hurt from competition from lower-cost foreign carmakers



Owen Bieber.

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and a slowdown in auto sales in the early 1980s. Bieber struggled to find a balance between the companies' demands to be competitive and the needs of his members to keep their jobs. The UAW demanded a national industrial policy to help protect jobs. It also proposed a requirement that foreign carmakers build a certain percentage of car parts in the United States to help create jobs for American workers.

### *Fights for rights*

In 1984 Bieber was named to Chrysler Corporation's board of directors. Industry observers remarked that the seat really

belonged to the Chrysler workers who had granted major concessions during the company's earlier financial problems and were the single largest group of shareholders in the corporation. In 1985 Bieber was in the awkward position of calling a strike against Chrysler when contract talks broke down. The strike was settled a week later following a forty-two-hour bargaining session, but neither side was happy with the new contract. The company blamed the expensive strike on Bieber's angry and ineffective bargaining style. Bieber told *Ward's Auto World* that future contract talks with the Big Three automakers would focus more on issues such as job security, reduced work time, and national health care rather than simply money.

Bieber helped create some original labor agreements. For example, he got the automakers to create job guarantee programs that ban them from laying off workers when machines take over their jobs. Instead, the companies must find new work for the employees and retrain them if necessary. In return, the union agreed to smaller than usual increases in pay. Bieber also worked on the first labor contracts for GM's Saturn small-car project, which began producing a new generation of American cars in 1990. The contract lets auto workers share in some management decisions regarding how the plant is operated. In return, the UAW agreed that Saturn workers would receive starting pay that is slightly less than the going rate at traditional auto plants.

### ***Weakening influence***

By 1992 Bieber and the UAW were stuck in a bitter losing battle with Caterpil-

lar Inc., a manufacturer of earth moving equipment. When contract talks failed, Caterpillar began hiring replacement workers. The strike lasted five months before the UAW gave in and ordered its members back to work without a contract. In a desperate attempt to show the strength of the UAW as 1993 Big Three contract talks approached, Bieber made an angry speech at a 1992 UAW convention. He warned auto companies against pushing the union too hard, saying that "... it takes two to make peace but only one to make a war."

Despite Bieber's speech, the UAW was still facing a bleak future, and Bieber's leadership of the union was doing little to improve the situation. In 1992 GM announced plans to close twenty-one plants and cut an estimated fifty thousand UAW members from its workforce. Union membership also declined. In 1978 the UAW had represented 86 percent of the auto industry's workforce. That figure fell to 68 percent by 1992, and since 1979 total UAW membership had fallen from 1.5 million to 1.1 million. Pressure began to build on Bieber to turn things around or to resign. In 1995 Stephen Yokich, head of the UAW's GM department and longtime rival of Bieber's, took over the job after Bieber reached the retirement age of sixty-five. In his farewell speech, Bieber spoke out against Japan's unfair trade practices and warned unions that they would have to watch out for Republican attempts to hurt working families.

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## BILLY THE KID

**Born:** November 23, 1859

**New York, New York**

**Died:** July 14, 1881

**Fort Sumner, New Mexico**

*American criminal and murderer*

**W**illiam H. Bonney, known as Billy the Kid, was the youngest and most famous example of a gun-fighter from the American West. His legend survived and grew long after his death.

### ***Beginning of a short life***

On November 23, 1859, Henry McCarty was born in New York City but moved to Kansas with his family when he was very young. His father died soon after the move and his mother remarried and moved west to New Mexico. Henry took his stepfather's name, Antrim, and eventually changed his name to William H. Bonney.

There are very few facts about Bonney's career that can be verified. His problems with the law began at age fifteen, when he was thrown in jail for theft in Silver City, New Mexico. After escaping to Arizona, he shot and killed an older man who had bullied him into a fight. Bonney then fled back to New Mexico.

### ***Reputation grows***

Back in New Mexico, Bonney became involved in the Lincoln County War (1878–79), a violent struggle between rival groups of cattle ranchers and merchants. He proved to be a fearless fighter and an excellent

shot. However, two of those shots ended up killing Sheriff James Brady and a deputy. As a result, Bonney was wanted for murder. "His equal for sheer inborn savagery," wrote journalist Emerson Hough, "has never lived." Such statements sent Bonney's reputation soaring and won him the nickname Billy the Kid.

Billy struck a deal with Territorial Governor Lew Wallace. He agreed to testify against other murderers in return for having the charges against him dropped. However, after gaining his freedom, Billy returned to his criminal ways. He led several other men in stealing cattle from some Texas ranchers. Wallace then ordered him arrested. Sheriff Pat Garrett soon took the Kid into custody. A judge told Billy that "You are sentenced to be hanged by the neck until you are dead, dead, dead!" Billy the Kid's reply was "And you can go to hell, hell, hell!"

### ***A violent end***

Billy the Kid was somehow able to overpower and kill his jail guard, shoot another deputy, and escape. This time the lawmen would take no chances. In July 1881 Sheriff Garrett and his posse (a group of men organized by the sheriff to assist him) trapped Billy at a house in Fort Sumner, New Mexico. They ambushed him in a dark room and shot him to death. The next day he was buried in a borrowed white shirt that was too large for his slim body. Admirers scraped together \$208 for a gravestone, which was later broken into pieces and stolen by souvenir hunters. Billy had lived exactly twenty-one years, seven months, and twenty-one days.

Over the years, the legend of Billy the Kid grew as a result of several books and movies made about his life, many of which exaggerat-



*Billy the Kid.*

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ed the facts. For example, he did not kill twenty-one people; he killed four men and participated in the killing of several others. Far worse than the inaccuracy of the stories were their attempts to make a hero out of a thief and murderer.

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## LARRY BIRD

**Born:** December 7, 1956

**West Baden, Indiana**

*American basketball player and coach*

Few players have left a mark on 1980s professional basketball like Larry Bird, the famous forward for the Boston Celtics.

#### ***Younger years***

Larry Bird was born on December 7, 1956. He was the fourth of Joe and Georgia Bird's six children. His birthplace, West Baden, Indiana, is a small village just outside the slightly larger town of French Lick, Indiana, which had a population of two thousand. French Lick was once a famous resort community that people visited for its mineral springs (healthful waters). French Lick had fallen upon hard times by the time Bird was a youngster. His father managed to find factory work in the town, but the Bird family always struggled to make ends meet. The Birds had enough coal to stay warm, but many nights the old furnace would break down. The house would fill with black smoke, and the family would all have to stand outside, freezing, while Joe Bird tried to fix things.

Bird and his brothers played all sorts of sports, including baseball and softball. In fact, Bird did not settle on basketball as his primary sport until he was in high school. When he realized he might excel in the sport, he began to practice day and night. "I played when I was cold and my body was aching

and I was so tired,” he told *Sports Illustrated*. “I don’t know why, I just kept playing and playing.... I guess I always wanted to make the most out of it.”

Bird sharpened his talents in one of the most demanding basketball arenas. In Indiana, the sport reigns supreme. When he was in high school in French Lick, he played guard during his sophomore and junior years. He showed no great ability at the time, and at 6 feet 3 inches (1.9 meters) he was not especially tall. By his senior year, however, Bird had grown four more inches. At 6 feet 7 inches (2 meters) he became an impressive physical specimen and retained his agility (ability to move quickly) and hustle (speed, drive). Many universities wanted him for their teams, but Bird decided to stay at home. He entered Indiana University in the fall of 1974. Bird lasted only twenty-four days at the college. He felt uncomfortable about the size and the impersonality (lack of emotion) of the school. He returned to French Lick and entered junior college there, but within two months he had dropped out of that college as well.

Bird had a short marriage that ended in divorce. In order to support himself and his daughter from that marriage, Bird took a job with the City Department of French Lick. He drove a garbage truck and helped to maintain parks and roads in the district. Such work may have seemed a low point to some people, but Bird told *Sports Illustrated* that he actually enjoyed it. “I loved that job,” he said. “It was outdoors, you were around your friends.... I felt like I was really accomplishing something. Had the chance to make my community look better.”

### ***Overcomes tragedies***

Bird faced personal loss during the same period when his father committed suicide. After that tragic event, Bird decided to return to college. This time he went to Indiana State. He had little confidence in his academic abilities, but felt that he could help the basketball team, the Sycamores. By that time he had grown another two inches. He was 6 feet 9 inches (2.1 meters) in height and weighed 220 pounds (99.9 kilograms).

Bird had to sit out his first season at Indiana State because of rules having to do with players moving from one school to another. That year the Sycamores went 13–12 (won thirteen games and lost twelve). When he was allowed to play in the 1976–77 season, his first year on the team, the same Sycamores earned a 25–3 record—their best in almost thirty years. When he was at Indiana State, Bird became the most talked about college player in the country. Bird always played with and for the team and always shared his fame with his fellow players both on and off the court.

The Boston Celtics drafted Bird in 1978. He had the option of playing professional basketball right away, but he chose to stay in school and finish his degree. The Celtics worked out a deal for Bird after his graduation. The contract signed on June 8, 1979, gave Bird \$650,000 per year for five years, a total of \$3.25 million. This sum was a record for a rookie (first-year player) in any sport. The Boston fans made no secret of their expectations for their new headliner. Bird did not disappoint them.

Bird took the National Basketball Association (NBA) by storm as a rookie in 1979, dominating the league almost without a



*Larry Bird.*

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break throughout his career. He helped the Celtics regain their position as a basketball superpower. He made the NBA All-Star team his first year, played in every regular season Celtics game, and led the team to a first place finish in its league. Bird was named Rookie of the Year and finished third in the Most Valuable Player polls.

#### ***Bird soars with Celtics***

Those who had predicted that Bird could never turn Boston around had to take back their statements. After Bird's first year,

the team played in the championship series again and won in 1981, 1984, and 1986. The Celtics' games at the Boston Garden (their home stadium) were sold out for years because fans wanted to watch Bird play.

Bird was never the flashiest of players in the NBA. He was not very fast on the court and was not a remarkable jumper. Bird has achieved greatness the old-fashioned way—by being consistent, by contributing not as a grandstanding superstar but as a team player, and by attacking every game with every ounce of effort. He spent hours practicing both with his team and alone. Sportswriters and fans alike have been amazed at how Bird knew the game, the basketball court, and where the ball was going to be. His timing and feel for the game was exceptional. He always seemed to know where he should go and where he should be.

Bird was always somewhat injury-prone. He missed much of the 1988–89 season after major surgery on both heels. He continued to battle back problems and other injuries throughout the next few seasons. He retired from the Celtics after a thirteen-year career. He played his last game of basketball as a member of the U.S. Olympic Dream Team (a basketball team made up of U.S. superstars) at the 1992 Summer Olympic games in Barcelona, Spain.

After retiring as a player, Bird worked for the Celtics as a consultant. In 1997, Bird returned to his home state of Indiana and became the coach of the Indiana Pacers. He led his team to the Eastern Conference finals in 1998 and 1999; in 2000, the Pacers lost to the Los Angeles Lakers in the finals before Bird stepped down as coach.

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## SHIRLEY TEMPLE BLACK

**Born:** April 23, 1928

**Santa Monica, California**

*American actress and ambassador*

Shirley Temple Black is widely regarded as an American heroine who devoted her career first to films and then to public service. The United States ambassador to Czechoslovakia from 1989 until 1992, she is still remembered by millions of fans for her success as a child movie star in the 1930s.

**A child star**

Shirley Temple was born in Santa Monica, California, on April 23, 1928. The youngest of three children, her father was a bank teller, who later worked as his daughter's manager and financial advisor when she became famous. As a child Shirley Temple began to take dance steps almost as soon as she began to walk. Her mother began taking her to dancing classes when she was about three and a half years old. She also took her daughter on endless rounds of visits to agents, hoping to secure a show business

career. The hard work soon paid off—little Shirley obtained a contract at a small film studio, and one of the great careers in film history began.

Shirley Temple's first contract was with Educational Pictures Inc., for whom she worked in 1932 and 1933. She appeared in a short movie entitled *Baby Burlesks*, followed by a two-reeler, *Frolics of Youth*, that would lead to her being contracted by the Fox Film Corporation at a salary of \$150 per week. The first full-length feature that she appeared in for Fox was *Carolina* (1934). It was another Fox release of that year that made her a star: *Stand Up and Cheer*. She appeared in eight other full-length films that year, including *Little Miss Marker* and *Bright Eyes*. The first of these is especially notable because it was her first starring role. In 1934 the Academy of Motion Pictures Arts and Sciences awarded her with a special miniature Oscar "in grateful recognition of her outstanding contribution to screen entertainment during the year, 1934."

Through the rest of the decade Shirley Temple's star soared. It was not only her adorable dimples and fifty-six corkscrew curls that would keep her at the top of the box office listings. She was a spectacularly talented child, able to sing and dance with style and genuine feeling. Gifted with perfect pitch, she was a legendary quick study who learned her lines and dance routines much faster than her older and more experienced costars.

Unfortunately, little of the built-up popularity would be Temple's to claim by the time she was an adult. As she reports in her autobiography (a person's own life story), her father's questionable management of her





*Shirley Temple Black.*

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funds, coupled with both of her parents' spending, enabled her to enjoy only a fraction of the immense fortune she had earned. By 1940 she had appeared in forty-three feature films and shorts, and an entire industry had sprung up with products celebrating the glories of Shirley Temple: dolls, dresses, coloring books, and other merchandise.

### *Trying to grow up*

By the decade's end Temple was no longer quite a child. When *The Blue Bird* (1940) proved unpopular at the box office, and the next film she starred in fared poorly as well, Twentieth-Century Fox devised a

means of getting rid of the "property" that had saved the fledgling studio from bankruptcy. She tried to maintain her acting career through the 1940s, but never again did she come even close to the stardom of her childhood. Film audiences would simply not allow the adorable girl who had sung "On the Good Ship Lolly Pop" and "Animal Crackers (in My Soup)" to grow up.

It is arguable that nothing could have been done to preserve Temple's youthful magic. Yet her ongoing struggles as an adult would prove her to be as heroic in her own life as she had ever been on the screen. A difficult first marriage to actor John Agar caused her to mature quickly. Almost immediately thereafter came the realization that her parents had been looking out for their own best interests rather than hers.

### *Political role*

In 1950 Temple married the successful California businessman Charles Black, with whom she raised her children. Her concern over domestic social problems caused her to realize that life as a private citizen could not satisfy her desire to make the world a better place. She ran for Congress in 1967 and was defeated. This was only the beginning of her involvement in public service, however. In 1969 she was appointed to serve as a representative to the United Nations (UN), a multinational organization aimed at world peace. Her work at the United Nations led to a second career for Shirley Temple Black. In 1972 she was appointed representative to the UN Conference on the Human Environment and also served as a representative on the Joint Committee for the USSR-USA Environmental Treaty. The next year she served as a

U.S. commissioner for the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

Black overcame a great challenge in 1972 when she successfully battled breast cancer. When she publicly disclosed that she had had a mastectomy (the surgical removal of a breast), she gave courage to millions of women. Two years later she was appointed ambassador to Ghana, where the people of that nation warmly received her. In all of her various diplomatic functions, Black's intelligence and spirit contributed greatly to her country's reputation and furthered its world position. Democratic President Jimmy Carter (1924–) paid tribute to her tact and flawless taste when he chose her (Black had been a lifelong Republican) to make the arrangements for his inauguration (swearing in as president) and inaugural ball in 1977.

By 1981 Black was such an established pillar of the public service community that she became one of the founding members of the American Academy of Diplomacy. In 1988 she was appointed Honorary Foreign Service Officer of the United States, the only person with that rank. She went on to serve as the U.S. ambassador to Czechoslovakia (today known as the Czech Republic and Slovakia) from 1989 until 1992. Such honors are ultimately the true measure of her career's meaning.

### **Recognition and later career**

Latter-day film industry recognition such as the Life Achievement Award of the American Center of Films for Children or the full-sized Oscar that Black was given in 1985 were echoes of a past that, while still meaningful for "Shirley Temple," were not quite

relevant for Shirley Temple Black. According to Black, her more than twenty-five years of social service have been just as enjoyable as her years in Hollywood.

Black, through her lifetime of service in the arts and public life, has demonstrated the spirit of self-sacrifice and hard work that Americans have aspired to for generations. She is regarded as a true American heroine. Her lifetime achievements were duly honored on December 6, 2001, when she was honored in a ceremony at the Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts in Washington, D.C.

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## ELIZABETH BLACKWELL

**Born:** February 3, 1821

**Bristol, England**

**Died:** May 31, 1910

**Hastings, England**

*English physician, educator, reformer,  
and women's rights activist*

**T**he first woman in America to receive a medical degree, Elizabeth Blackwell crusaded for the admission of women to medical schools in the United States and Europe.



*Elizabeth Blackwell.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

### ***Early life and childhood***

Elizabeth Blackwell was born on February 3, 1821, in Bristol, England to Samuel and Hannah Blackwell. Because Samuel Blackwell was a dissenter (one who refuses to accept the authority of an established church), the Blackwell children were denied public schooling. Samuel hired private tutors who went against English tradition and instructed the girls in the same subjects as the boys. Hannah Blackwell inspired her children by introducing them to music and literature.

When Elizabeth was twelve years old, Samuel Blackwell brought his family to New

York, New York. Samuel Blackwell soon became a strong supporter of abolition, the movement to end slavery in America. He also established a sugar refinery in New York City and was doing quite well until the economy faltered in 1837 and he lost most of his wealth.

In 1838 the Blackwells moved to Cincinnati, Ohio, hoping for a new start. But within a few months Samuel Blackwell died, leaving his family unprovided for. The three oldest girls supported the family for several years by operating a boarding school for young women.

### ***Seeking an education***

In 1842 Elizabeth Blackwell accepted a teaching position in Henderson, Kentucky, but local racial attitudes offended her strong abolitionist beliefs and she resigned at the end of the year. On her return to Cincinnati, a friend who had undergone treatment for a gynecological disorder (having to do with women's reproductive organs) told Blackwell that if a woman doctor had treated her, she would have been spared an embarrassing ordeal. She also urged Elizabeth to study medicine. At first Blackwell disregarded the idea of becoming a doctor. But eventually her ideas changed, and the thought of becoming a doctor turned into an obsession. Friends discouraged her, though, and even recommended that, if she chose to study medicine, her best choice was to move to France, disguise herself as a man, and only then would she be accepted into medical school.

In 1845 Blackwell moved to Asheville, North Carolina, where she taught school and, with the help of physician John Dick-

son, studied medicine in her spare time. Her next move, in 1846, was to a girls' school in Charleston, South Carolina, where she had more time to devote to her medical studies, this time under the guidance of Dickson's brother, Samuel.

When Blackwell's attempts to enroll in the medical schools of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and New York City were rejected (by twenty-nine different schools), she wrote to a number of small northern colleges. In 1847 she was admitted to the Geneva, New York, Medical College. Blackwell later learned that her application to the Geneva school was initially rejected and she was only admitted as some sort of practical joke, for no woman had ever attempted to gain admittance into a medical school.

All eyes were upon the young woman whom many regarded as immoral (sinful) or simply mad. At first Blackwell was even barred from attending classroom demonstrations. Soon, however, Blackwell's quiet personality and hard work won over her classmates and teaching staff. Her graduation in 1849 was highly publicized on both sides of the Atlantic. She then entered La Maternité Hospital for further study and practical experience. While working with the children, she contracted purulent conjunctivitis, an eye infection which left her blind in one eye.

### **Setting up practice**

Handicapped by partial blindness, Dr. Blackwell gave up her ambition to become a surgeon and began practice at St. Bartholomew's Hospital in London. In 1851 she returned to New York City, where she

applied for several positions as a physician, but was rejected because she was a woman.

Blackwell then established a private practice in a rented room, where her sister Emily, who had also pursued a medical career, soon joined her. Their modest dispensary (medical office) later became the New York Infirmary and College for Women, operated by and for women. Dr. Blackwell also continued to fight for the admission of women to medical schools. In the 1860s she organized a unit of female field doctors during the Civil War (1861–65), where Northern forces fought against those of the South over, among other things, slavery and secession (the withdrawal of the Southern States from the Federal Union).

In 1869 Dr. Blackwell set up practice in London and continued her efforts to open the medical profession to women. Her articles and her autobiography (1895) attracted widespread attention. From 1875 to 1907 she was professor of gynecology at the London School of Medicine for Women. She died at her home in Hastings in 1910, leaving behind a legacy that would pave the way for countless generations of female physicians.

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## TONY BLAIR

**Born:** May 6, 1953

**Edinburgh, Scotland**

*Scottish-born prime minister of Great Britain*

**B**ritish politician and Prime Minister Tony Blair represented a new era in Parliament and made major changes to the Labour Party along the way.

### *Father's influence*

Anthony Charles Lynton Blair was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, on May 6, 1953. His father, Leo, a successful lawyer, chose to run for Parliament in 1963. He suffered a stroke just before the election, leaving him unable to speak for three years. His three children had to learn to take care of themselves to be able to cope with the family's stress. His father also encouraged the children to achieve in politics what he himself could not, and as Blair said in an interview with Martin Jacques for the *London Sunday Times*, "I felt I couldn't let him down."

But there was another part of the family tree whose genes influenced the young Blair. His natural grandparents (his father was adopted) had been actors and dancers, and Blair followed in their footsteps during his student days. He received rave reviews for his performances at Fettes College, organized gigs for rock groups, and later, as a student at St. John's College at Oxford University, was the lead singer for Ugly Rumors, a rock band that played the music of such bands as Fleetwood Mac, the Rolling Stones, and the Doo-bie Brothers.

In time, however, Blair followed his father's career and received a law degree from Oxford University in Oxford, England, in 1975. He then worked as an intern (a student working under the guidance of an experienced person) with Queen's Counsel (QC) Alexander Irvine. Irvine remembered Blair in the *New Yorker* as being able to absorb difficult issues: "One of his principal skills was absorbing enormously complicated material. Make your best points on the issues—he was very good at that." Blair worked on employment law cases. His ability to communicate well proved very useful as he became involved in local politics. Blair married Cherie Booth, another intern and a top graduate of the London School of Economics, in March 1980. They had four children.

### *Rising up the ranks*

Blair's father had belonged to the Tory Party (also known as the Conservatives, who preferred to maintain traditions and avoid change). Having witnessed the power of the local miners where he grew up, Blair joined the Labour Party. The miners were the main strength of the Labour Party in England, which at this time was in crisis. Strikes by several unions in the winter of 1978 had contributed to a large Tory victory in 1979, because the people viewed the Labour Party as being controlled by the unions. In 1983 Blair was elected to Parliament along with 208 other Labour Party MPs (Members of Parliament), the smallest number since 1935.

After Conservative Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher's (1925–) reelection in 1983, Neil Kinnock became the new leader of the opposition Labour Party. Kinnock promoted Blair to several posts, including spokesper-

son on treasury and economic affairs from 1984 to 1987, and spokesperson on trade and industry in 1987. Blair also spent time investigating the causes of the October 1987 stock market crash. After the 1992 election, which brought the Tory John Major (1943–) to power, Kinnock had to resign and John Smith replaced him. After Smith's death in 1994, Blair was elected as leader of the Labour Party.

### ***Government and individual responsibility***

Blair realized that the Labour Party had to change its message; it could not win over voters using the old ideas of the welfare state and its emphasis on national industry and union privileges. He supported policies to decrease crime, lower taxes, improve trade, and give more power to local and regional governments. Blair also called for a nation “where people succeed on the basis of what they give to their country,” as noted in *Knight-Ridder/Tribune News Service*. There would be an increasing emphasis on family and community values, and it would be the government's job to create conditions under which families could prosper.

Blair was able to push through his ideas because the Labour Party had changed how it elected its leaders. In the past officials had been elected by a system of block votes, which were divided among special interest groups and leaders—trade unions and MPs, for example—rather than by one vote per person. Blair had tried to institute “one person, one vote” at his local party branch in 1980, but failed. However, the system had just been changed to a version of one vote per person when Blair ran for the party leadership in 1994. This worked to his advantage



*Tony Blair.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

because the new voting method had the most benefit for a skilled politician such as him.

### ***A new party platform***

Blair also succeeded in convincing Labour Party members to rewrite Clause Four of the party charter. The clause called for the redistribution of wealth through “common ownership of the means of distribution, production, and exchange,” which is basically a definition of socialism. With the change the party could no longer be labeled just the party of the working class. This “New Labour” supported free enterprise while working to lower budget deficits (the amount

by which spending exceeds income) and control inflation (a general increase in prices). Although some argued that the Labour Party now seemed very similar to the Conservatives, Blair won the national election in May 1997, with Labour winning a majority of 179 seats out of 659 in the House of Commons.

Blair believed that the government had a duty to help people, and his proposed reforms to welfare spending and social programs were well received. He established a training program for welfare recipients to provide education and increase employment opportunities. He also came up with a plan to improve the British National Health Service, making sure that all British citizens had access to health care. Blair also won praise for ending the thirty-year war in Northern Ireland between the Catholic minority and the Protestant, British-favoring majority. In April 1998 the leaders in Northern Ireland reached an agreement to create a new Northern Ireland Assembly, giving the Irish Republic (the Southern portion of the island) a say in the affairs of the North. In return, the Irish Republic agreed to cease efforts to reclaim the North. A British-Irish Council was also created to link Northern Ireland with Wales, Scotland, and England.

#### ***A Euro-star***

In Europe Blair took a more traditional stand. He was aware that many within the country disapproved of too much British involvement with other European countries. The country maintained its right to “opt-out” of certain provisions agreed to by other members of the European Union. It chose not to participate in the European Monetary Union at its creation in 1998. (That group was created to gradually phase in a new com-

mon currency that all of its members would use.) Other European politicians began to imitate Blair’s policies, including Gerhard Schroeder (1944–) in Germany and Dutch Prime Minister Wim Kok.

On May 20, 2000, Blair’s wife, Cherie, gave birth to the couple’s fourth child, Leo. The boy was the first child born to a serving British prime minister in 152 years. In the June 2001 elections Blair and the Labour Party won easily, marking the first time in the party’s history that it won a second full term. Blair took on new duties after the terrorist attacks on the United States on September 11, 2001. He offered full support to the United States and its President, George W. Bush (1946–). Blair visited the leaders of more than seventy countries to seek their support in the war on terrorism, and he met often with President Bush to discuss the results of those meetings.

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WILLIAM  
BLAKE

**Born:** November 28, 1757

**London, England**

**Died:** August 12, 1827

**London, England**

*English poet, engraver, and painter*

**W**illiam Blake was an English poet, engraver, and painter. A boldly imaginative rebel in both his thought and his art, he combined poetic and pictorial genius to explore life.

### Youth

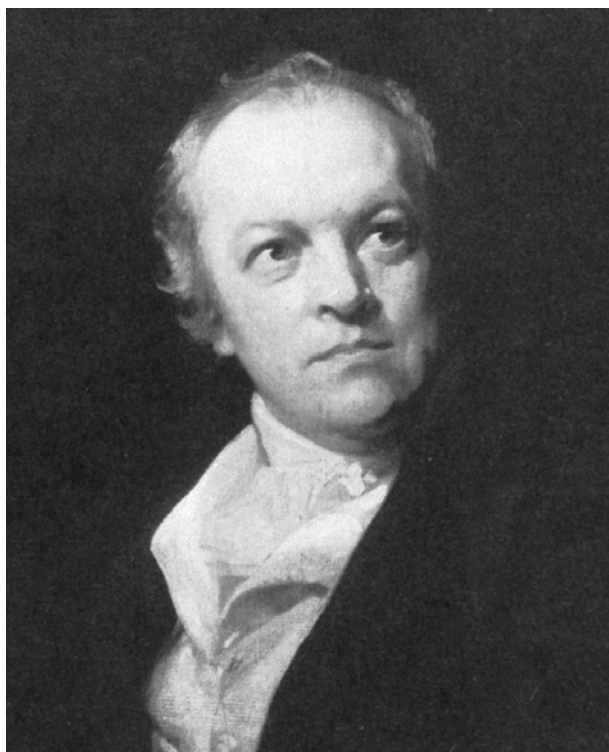
William Blake was born in London, England, on November 28, 1757, the second son of a mens' clothing merchant. Except for a few years in Sussex, England, his entire life was spent in London. From his earliest years he saw visions. He would see trees full of angels or similar sights. If these were not true mystical visions, they were the result of the artist's intense spiritual understanding of the world. From his early teens Blake wrote poems, often setting them to melodies of his own composition.

At age ten Blake started at the well-known Park's drawing school, and at age fourteen he began a seven-year apprenticeship (studying and practicing under someone skilled) to an engraver. It was as an engraver that Blake earned his living for the rest of his life. After he was twenty-one, Blake studied for a time at the Royal Academy of Arts, but he was unhappy with the instruction and soon left.

In August 1782 Blake married Catherine Boucher, who had fallen in love with him at first sight. He taught her to read and write, and she later became a valued assistant. His "sweet shadow of delight," as Blake called Catherine, was a devoted and loving wife.

### Early works

When he was twenty-six, he wrote a collection entitled *Poetical Sketches*. This volume



William Blake.

*Reproduced by permission of the National Portrait Gallery (London).*

was the only one of Blake's poetic works to appear in conventional printed form—he later invented and practiced a new method.

After his father died in 1784, Blake set up a print shop next door to the family shop. In 1787 his beloved brother Robert died; thereafter William claimed that Robert communicated with him in visions. It was Robert, William said, who inspired him with a new method of illuminated etching. The words and or design were drawn in reverse on a plate covered with an acid-resisting substance; acid was then applied. From these etched plates pages were printed and later



hand-colored. Blake used his unique methods to print almost all of his long poems.

In 1787 Blake produced *Songs of Innocence* (1789) as the first major work in his new process, followed by *Songs of Experience* (1794). The magnificent lyrics in these two collections carefully compare the openness of innocence with the bitterness of experience. They are a milestone because they are a rare instance of the successful union of two art forms by one man.

### ***Days of betrayal***

Blake spent the years 1800 to 1803 in Sussex working with William Hayley, a minor poet and man of letters. With good intentions Hayley tried to cure Blake of his unprofitable enthusiasms. Blake finally rebelled against this criticism and rejected Hayley's help. In *Milton* (c. 1800–1810), Blake wrote an allegory (story with symbols) of the spiritual issues involved in this relationship. He identified with the poet John Milton (1608–1674) in leaving the safety of heaven and returning to earth. Also at this time in life Blake was accused of uttering seditious (treasonous) sentiments. He was later found not guilty but the incident affected much of Blake's final epic (long lyric poem highlighting a single subject), *Jerusalem* (c. 1804–1820).

Back in London, Blake worked hard at his poems, engraving, and painting, but he suffered several reverses. He was the victim of fraud in connection with his designs for Blair's (1699–1746) poem *The Grave*. He also received insulting reviews of that project and of an exhibition he gave in 1809 to introduce his idea of decorating public buildings with portable frescoes (paintings done on moist plaster using water-based paints).

Blake had become a political sympathizer with the American and French Revolutions. He composed *The Four Zoas* as a mystical story predicting the future showing how evil is rooted in man's basic faculties—reason, passion, instinct, and imagination. Imagination was the hero.

### ***Later years***

The next decade is a sad and private period in Blake's life. He did some significant work, including his designs for Milton's poems *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso* (1816) and the writing of his own poem *The Everlasting Gospel* (c. 1818). He was also sometimes reduced to writing for others, and the public did not purchase or read his divinely inspired predictions and visions. After 1818, however, conditions improved. His last six years of life were spent at Fountain Court surrounded by a group of admiring young artists. Blake did some of his best pictorial work: the illustrations to the *Book of Job* and his unfinished *Dante*. In 1824 his health began to weaken, and he died singing in London, England, on August 12, 1827.

### ***Continuing influence***

Blake's history does not end with his death. In his own lifetime he was almost unknown except to a few friends and faithful sponsors. He was even suspected of being mad. But interest in his work grew during the middle of the nineteenth century, and since then very committed reviewers have gradually shed light on Blake's beautiful, detailed, and difficult mythology. He has been acclaimed as one who shares common ideals held by psychologists, writers (most notably William Butler Yeats [1865–1939]), extreme students of

religion, rock-and-roll musicians, and people studying Oriental religion. The works of William Blake have been used by people rebelling against a wide variety of issues, such as war, conformity (behaving in a certain way because it is accepted or expected), and almost every kind of repression.

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## KONRAD BLOCH

**Born:** January 21, 1912

**Neisse, Germany**

**Died:** October 15, 2000

**Burlington, Massachusetts**

*German biochemist*

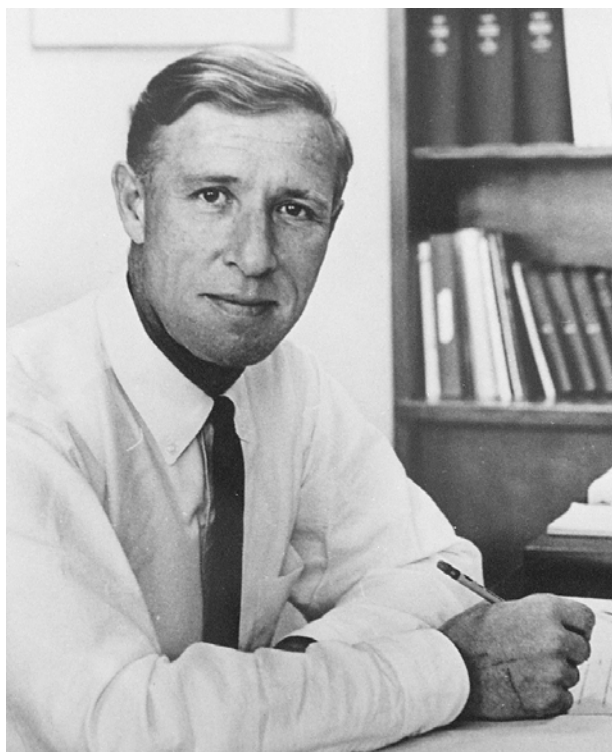
Konrad Bloch's investigations of the complex processes by which animal cells produce cholesterol have increased our understanding of the biochemistry of living organisms and have helped further research into treatment of various common diseases. For his contributions to the study of how the body creates cholesterol, he was awarded the 1964 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine.

### **Early years and education**

Konrad Emil Bloch was born on January 21, 1912, in the German town of Neisse (now Nysa, Poland) to Frederick (Fritz) D. Bloch and Hedwig Bloch. After receiving his early education in local schools, Bloch attended the Technische Hochschule (technical university) in Munich, Germany, from 1930 to 1934. He quickly developed an interest in organic chemistry, partly through the influence of his teacher, Hans Fischer. Also at this time he was inspired while attending lectures by leading chemists of the time, including Adolph Windaus (1876–1959), Rudolph Willstätter (1872–1942), and Heinrich Wieland (1877–1957).

He earned a degree in 1934, the year after Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) became chancellor (leader) of Germany. Bloch moved to Switzerland after graduating and lived there until 1936. While in Switzerland he conducted his first published biochemical research. He worked at the Swiss Research Institute in Davos, where he performed experiments involving the biochemistry of the bacteria (microscopic parasites) that causes tuberculosis, a deadly disease that attacks the lungs and bones.

In 1936 Bloch left Switzerland for the United States, where he earned his doctorate degree in biochemistry in 1938 at the College of Physicians and Surgeons at Columbia University. Bloch joined the school's faculty and later accepted a position at Columbia on a research team led by Rudolf Schoenheimer (1898–1941). With his associate David Rittenberg, Schoenheimer had developed a method of using radioisotopes (radioactive forms of atoms) to track the path of particular molecules in



Konrad Bloch.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

cells and living organisms. This method was especially useful in studying the biochemistry of cholesterol.

Cholesterol, which is found in all animal cells, contains twenty-seven carbon atoms in each molecule. It plays an essential role in the cell's functioning, as it stabilizes cell membrane (walls of the cell). Before Bloch's research, scientists knew little about cholesterol, although many believed there was a connection between the amount of cholesterol and other fats in the diet and arteriosclerosis (an unhealthy buildup of cholesterol deposits inside the arteries).

### ***Conducts research on cholesterol***

After Schoenheimer died in 1941, Rittenberg and Bloch continued to conduct research on cholesterol. From their research they learned that acetate (a salt of acetic acid, an important acid found in the body) is a major part of cholesterol. This was the beginning of Bloch's work for many years—the investigation of the complex pattern of steps in the cholesterol's biosynthesis, the production of complex cells from simple cells.

Between 1946 and 1954 Bloch continued his research into the origin of all twenty-seven carbon atoms in the cholesterol molecule. Bloch's research explained the significance of acetic acid as a building block of cholesterol, and showed that cholesterol is an essential component of all body cells. In fact, Bloch discovered that all steroid-related substances (hormones, or substances released by organs for the organic process) in the human body are derived from cholesterol.

In 1941, Bloch married Lore Teutsch, whom he met in Munich. They had two children, Peter and Susan.

### ***Awarded Nobel Prize***

In 1964 Bloch and his colleague Feodor Lynen, who had independently performed related research, were awarded the Nobel Prize for Physiology or Medicine. The same year Bloch was honored with the Fritzsche Award from the American Chemical Society and the Distinguished Service Award from the University of Chicago School of Medicine.

Bloch's work is significant because it contributed to creating "an outline for the chemistry of life," as E. P. Kennedy and F. M. Westheimer of Harvard wrote in *Science*.

More importantly, his contributions to understanding the biosynthesis of cholesterol have contributed to efforts to understand the human body's regulation of cholesterol levels in blood and tissue.

Bloch was known for his extreme modesty. When he was awarded the Nobel Prize, the *New York Times* reported that he refused to have his picture taken in front of a sign that read, "Hooray for Dr. Bloch!" On October 15, 2000, Bloch died of heart failure at the Lahey Clinic in Burlington, Massachusetts. He was eighty-eight years old.

According to the *Harvard University Gazette*, Dean Jeremy R. Knowles called Bloch, "a marvelously perceptive biochemist and genius," and added that Bloch's "deep understanding of metabolism laid the chemical foundations of today's biology."

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## JUDY BLUME

**Born:** February 12, 1938

Elizabeth, New Jersey

American writer

Perhaps the most popular author ever of works for upper elementary to junior high school readers, Judy Blume is the creator of honest, often humorous stories that focus on the concerns of teenagers. Her books, including others written for both younger and older audiences, have sold over seventy million copies around the world.

### **Early life and education**

Judy Sussman was born on February 12, 1938, in Elizabeth, New Jersey. She was closer to her father, Ralph Sussman, a dentist, than to her mother, Esther (Rosenfeld) Sussman, a shy homemaker who passed on her love of reading to her daughter. Judy loved going to the library to read adult novels as well as children's books. She was coeditor of her high school newspaper and went on to attend New York University (NYU), where she met John Blume, an attorney. They were married in 1959. After earning her degree in education in 1960, she gave birth to a daughter in 1961 and a son in 1963.

While a homemaker, Judy Blume realized that she needed an outlet for her creative energy and decided that she wanted to write. She composed several children's novels and took writing courses at NYU. Her husband was not encouraging. He told her that he thought it was great that she was writing if it meant she would not shop as much. Her confidence grew, though, as she began to sell a few stories to magazines and even had one of her children's books accepted for publication.

### **Huge success**

The release of a book written for an adolescent audience, *Are You There, God? It's Me*,



Judy Blume.

Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.

Margaret, in 1970 brought huge success to Blume. The novel describes eleven-year-old Margaret's worries and fears about starting her period and choosing her own religion. At the time of its publication, Blume was praised for her warm and funny descriptions of childhood feelings and conversation. She was also criticized, however, for the book's references to the human body and its processes. There were many attempts in different cities to have the book removed from library shelves. This book is now considered a groundbreaking work due to the honesty with which Blume presents previously taboo (not talked about) subjects.

Blume went on to write other successful books for different age groups. *Tales of a Fourth-Grade Nothing* (1972) and *Superfudge* (1980), two entertaining tales about ten-year-old Peter and his uncontrollable baby brother, Fudge, were especially popular with readers. Blume also caused another controversy (dispute) with the release of *Forever* (1975), in which she relates the details of her eighteen-year-old heroine's first sexual experience. Despite the fact that it was published as an adult book, protesters pointed out that Blume's popularity with readers and uncomplicated writing style attracted a preteen audience that could be influenced by the details of the novel. In *Tiger Eyes* (1981), Blume relates the story of how fifteen-year-old Davey adjusts to her father's murder. Hailed by many critics as Blume's finest work for her successful handling of a complicated plot, *Tiger Eyes* includes such issues as alcoholism, suicide, and violence.

### Praise and criticism

Reviewers commended Blume for her honesty, warmth, and wit, praising her keen observation of childhood and strong appeal to children. Her books for younger children, such as *Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing*, *Blubber*, and *Otherwise Known as Sheila the Great*, deal with problems such as getting along with one's brothers and sisters, establishing self-confidence, and having no friends. Books for young adults, such as *Are You There, God? It's Me, Margaret*, *Deenie*, and *Just As Long as We're Together*, consider matters of divorce, friendship, family breakups, and sexual development.

Blume's discussion of sexuality reflects her ability to target the issues that most

interest young people. She explained to John Neary of *People*, "I think I write about sexuality because it was uppermost in my mind when I was a kid: the need to know, and not knowing how to find out. My father delivered these little lectures to me, the last one when I was 10, on how babies are made. But questions about what I was feeling, and how my body could feel, I *never* asked my parents."

Although Blume's work is consistently popular with readers, it has often been the target of criticism. Some have charged that her readable style, with its focus on small detail, lacks the depth to deal with the complicated issues that she raises. Other reviewers point out that the problems of her characters are often left unresolved by the end of the book. Many critics, however, think it is to Blume's credit that she does not settle every problem for her readers.

As a result of Blume's popularity, she began to receive hundreds of fan letters every week, some of them asking her advice on different issues. In 1986 she collected a number of these letters from her readers and published them, along with her own comments, as *Letters to Judy: What Your Kids Wish They Could Tell You*. The resulting book was meant for both children and adults to help them better communicate with each other. Blume feels so strongly about the lack of communication between children and their parents that she used the profits from sales of *Letters to Judy*, among other projects, to help finance the KIDS Fund, which she established in 1981. Each year the fund contributes approximately \$45,000 to various nonprofit organizations set up to help young people communicate with their parents.

### Older audience

Over the years Blume's writing has matured and her audience has expanded with each new book. While she wrote for younger children at first, as her audience aged she began writing for teenagers and later for adults. Her first adult novel, *Wifey*, deals with a woman's search for more out of life and marriage. *Smart Women* finds a divorced woman trying to deal with single motherhood and new relationships. *Summer Sisters* examines the relationship between two adult women whose friendship has grown apart since the teenage years of their lives. Blume enjoys writing for all audiences: "I wish that older readers would read my books about young people, and I hope that younger readers will grow up to read what I have to say about adult life. I'd like to feel that I write for everybody."

As a result of the controversy surrounding some of her books, Blume also increased her activities opposing censorship (the act of examining materials such as books or films and removing anything considered objectionable or obscene) and supporting intellectual freedom. In 1999 she edited *Places I Never Meant to Be*, a collection of stories written by people whose work was the target of censorship efforts. Having divorced her first husband, Blume lives in Key West, Florida, with her second husband, George Cooper, also a writer. They were married in 1987.

Judy Blume continues to write for children and adults. She is also involved in a new project adopting her earlier children's novels into home videos.

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## HUMPHREY BOGART

**Born:** January 23, 1899

**New York, New York**

**Died:** January 14, 1957

**Hollywood, California**

*American actor*

The American stage and screen actor Humphrey Bogart was one of Hollywood, California's, most durable stars and a performer of considerable skill, subtlety, and individuality.

### *Early years*

Humphrey Deforest Bogart was born on January 23, 1899, in New York City to Deforest Bogart, a surgeon, and Maud Humphrey Bogart, an illustrator. He attended several private schools, including Trinity School in New York and Phillips Academy in Andover, Massachusetts. He performed poorly and was expelled at one point. Somewhat surprisingly Humphrey was not particularly interested in drama as a schoolboy.

Bogart left school to serve in the U.S. Navy during World War I (1914–18; a war that involved many European countries as well as Russia, the United States, and areas in the Middle East). While on assignment in the

military police, a prisoner tried to escape and struck Bogart in the mouth. Bogart was left with a scar and a slight lisp. These gave a more sinister quality to his already gravelly voice. When he returned home he worked briefly as a Wall Street (the area of New York City where the stock exchange is located) clerk.

### *Start in theater*

Bogart was never interested in dramatics when he was growing up. However, one of his parents' neighbors was a producer for the theater and offered Bogart a job in his office. Eventually, Humphrey became a stage manager (the person who assists the director and runs the stage for a play or musical) and then began acting himself. Acting did not always come easy for him. Although he did get roles, at one time he became so nervous that he ran offstage in the middle of a performance.

After a considerable struggle Bogart achieved recognition with his two most important stage appearances: in Maxwell Anderson's (1888–1959) comedy *Saturday's Children* (1928) and Robert E. Sherwood's (1896–1955) gangster morality play, *The Petrified Forest* (1936). In *The Petrified Forest* he played a mentally ill killer, Duke Mantee. This performance, as well as his performance in the popular film version with Bette Davis (1908–1989) and Leslie Howard (1893–1943), led to typecasting (repeatedly being asked to perform similar roles) him as a tough guy. He played mobsters in the movies *Dead End* (1937), *Angels with Dirty Faces* (1938), and *The Roaring Twenties* (1940).

### *Achieved star status with classic films*

Not until Bogart's performance as the cold, uncommitted private detective Sam Spade in John Huston's (1906–1987) adaptation of Dashiell Hammett's novel, *The Maltese Falcon* (1941), did Bogart reveal his potential as a screen personality. His co-starring role with Ingrid Bergman (1915–1982) as Rick Blaine in Michael Curtiz's (1888–1962) war drama *Casablanca* (1942) added to his legend and led to his first Academy Award nomination. He lost, but the film won Best Picture honors.

Bogart next performed in *To Have and Have Not* (1944), a screen version of Ernest Hemingway's (1899–1961) novel of the Great Depression (1929–39; a period during which poverty was widespread due to terrible economic conditions) transformed into a comedy of social consciousness. Bogart was cast opposite Lauren Bacall (1924–). The following year Bogart divorced his third wife and married Bacall. They had two children together.

Although Bogart appeared in several poor movies, most of his films were above the standard Hollywood level. His best motion pictures of the 1940s include *Sahara* (1943), a realistic World War II (1939–45; a war where Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States battled Germany, Italy, and Japan) drama; *The Big Sleep* (1946), a sophisticated (subtle and complex) detective thriller based on the Raymond Chandler (1888–1959) novel; and *Key Largo* (1948). *The Treasure of Sierra Madre* (1948) may be one of the greatest films ever released. Of Bogart's portrayal of a madman in *The Treasure of Sierra Madre*, the film critic Pauline Kael (1919–2001) wrote, "In a brilliant char-



Humphrey Bogart.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

acterization, Humphrey Bogart takes the tough-guy role to its psychological limits..."

In a very different film, the adventure-comedy *The African Queen* (1951), Bogart won an Academy Award for his humorously expressive depiction of the earthy, gin-guzzling boat captain who brings life to a straight-laced Katharine Hepburn (1907–).

### *Later works*

In *The Barefoot Contessa* (1953) Bogart gave depth to his role as a shattered, alcoholic film director. In *Beat the Devil* (1954), he portrayed a disreputable adventurer. *The*



*Caine Mutiny* (1954) provided Bogart with one of his finest roles, as the unstable Captain Queeg. In his last film, the sharp-edged boxing drama *The Harder They Fall* (1956), Bogart gave a strong performance as an investigator of sports corruption. A year later, on January 14, 1957, after a long struggle with throat cancer, he died in Hollywood.

Bogart was not only admired for his great talent, but also for his professionalism. He always arrived on the set knowing his lines and knowing exactly what he was supposed to do. He always cooperated willingly with the directors of his films. At his funeral, director John Huston, Bogart's longtime friend, paid him tribute: "He is quite unreplaceable. There will never be anybody like him."

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## JULIAN BOND

**Born:** January 14, 1940

**Nashville, Tennessee**

*African American civil rights leader, political activist, and politician*

**J**ulian Bond is a civil rights leader, political activist, and politician who has spent most of his life fighting for equality in America. He has remained committed to the

causes he believes in since joining the civil rights movement as a young college student.

#### **Family and education**

Horace Julian Bond, born on January 14, 1940, in Nashville, Tennessee, was the descendant of several generations of black educators and preachers. When his father Horace Mann Bond became president of Lincoln University in Oxford, Pennsylvania, the family moved into an environment that was mostly white. While in Oxford, the elder Bond caused a stir because of his protests against segregated facilities (people being required to use different facilities based on their race) and white attitudes of racial superiority. Young Julian, however, adjusted relatively easily to his new environment. He attended elementary school with white children and won the sixth grade award for being the brightest student in the class. He was sent to George School, near Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, for his high-school education. He encountered a few instances of racial prejudice (being judged because of his race) during these years, but on the whole he adjusted well to the academic environment—although his grades were only average.

His father later became president of Atlanta University and the family moved to Atlanta, Georgia. Despite rumors of racial unrest, Bond decided to attend Morehouse College in Atlanta after his graduation from high school. Bond started college in 1957.

#### **Early involvement in the civil rights movement**

At Morehouse, Bond became the coordinator and spokesman for civil rights demonstrations. He started an Atlanta student civil

rights group called the Committee on Appeal for Human Rights.

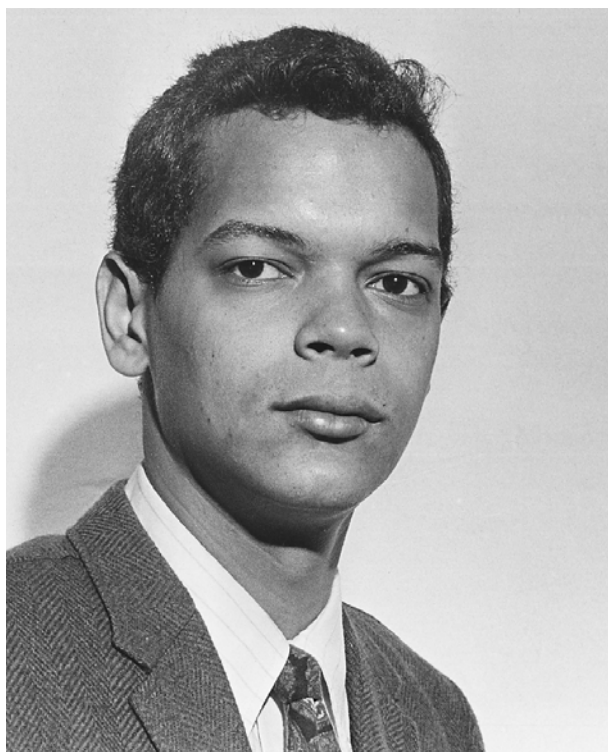
In 1960 Ella Baker (1903–1986), secretary of the civil rights organization known as the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) invited students to meet at Shaw University, in Raleigh, North Carolina, to coordinate their efforts. Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968), president of the SCLC, and Reverend James Lawson Jr., a believer in nonviolent resistance, spoke to the students and invited them to join the SCLC. Instead of joining the SCLC, several hundred students, including Bond, decided to form their own organization. They called their organization the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC).

Bond was appointed communications director for the SNCC. He kept this position from 1960 until 1966. He became very active in the SNCC, dropped out of college, and did not complete his degree at Morehouse until 1971.

### ***Elected office in Georgia***

Segregation in the South meant that very few African Americans held positions in government or in public service. The SNCC felt that it was important for African American candidates to seek elective offices. When the SNCC asked Bond to run for the Georgia House of Representatives, he reluctantly agreed to enter the race. Bond campaigned by visiting people door-to-door in the 136th legislative district. He gained the confidence of the people and easily won the election.

Just before the legislative session opened in 1966, Bond was contacted by a newsman and asked if he supported a statement against



*Julian Bond.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war fought in Vietnam in which South Vietnam, supported by the United States, was fighting against a takeover by Communist North Vietnam) that had been released by the SNCC. When Bond said he had not seen the release, the newsman read it to him. Bond then said he basically agreed with the statement. Upon hearing this, the other Georgia legislators voted to keep him from taking his seat in the House. Almost a year later, the U.S. Supreme Court declared the House vote to be unconstitutional. Bond was installed in the Georgia House of Representatives in January 1967, more than one year after his election victory.

During his time as a Georgia state representative, Bond supported civil rights laws, welfare legislation, a minimum-wage provision, legislation to end the death penalty, and antipoverty and urban renewal programs.

In 1968 Bond led an SNCC-backed delegation to the Democratic National Convention in Chicago. Their purpose was to challenge the delegation led by Georgia governor Lester Maddox (1915–) and to make sure African American delegates represented African American voters. Bond's delegation won half the votes away from the traditional delegates.

#### ***Political career ends***

Bond served in the Georgia House of Representatives until 1975. In 1976 he won a seat in the Georgia state senate. In 1986, however, Bond gave up his state senate seat to run for U.S. Congress. Bond's political life took a downward turn as he lost the Democratic primary to his former friend and colleague, John Lewis (1940–). Then in 1987 Bond's marital problems became headline news when his wife accused him of adultery and of cocaine use.

In the early 1990s, Bond served as a visiting professor at several universities, including Harvard University and the University of Virginia. He also narrated a Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) documentary about the civil rights movement, hosted television's *America's Black Forum*, wrote many newspaper and magazine articles, and had a newspaper column that was printed in newspapers across the country.

Since 1998 Bond has served as chairman of the National Association for the Advance-

ment of Colored People (NAACP). In 2002 Bond was reelected to his fifth term as chairman of the NAACP. He said that he was looking "forward to another year of progress in our fight for freedom, justice, and equality for all citizens." It is clear through these words that Bond has remained as committed to civil rights as he was when he first joined the movement.

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## DANIEL BOONE

**Born: November 2, 1734**

**Reading, Pennsylvania**

**Died: September 26, 1820**

**St. Charles, Missouri**

*American explorer*

**A**n American frontiersman and explorer, Daniel Boone was the greatest woodsman in United States history. He left behind many lands that he had discovered, protected, settled, and improved. He was the subject of many stories after his death that exaggerated both his accomplishments and his flaws.

### *An early interest in the outdoors*

Daniel Boone was born near Reading, Pennsylvania, on November 2, 1734, the sixth of eleven children born to Squire Boone, a farmer and land speculator (a person who buys land hoping that it will increase in value and be sold for a profit), and Sarah Morgan. His formal education was limited; he was more interested in the outdoors. He and his family moved to North Carolina in 1751. After working for his father, Boone became a wagoner (a wagon driver) and a blacksmith.

In 1755 Boone joined General Edward Braddock (c. 1695–1755), commander in chief of British forces in North America, as a wagoner. Boone participated in Braddock's attempt to capture Fort Duquesne (doo-KANE; now Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania) during the French and Indian War (1754–63), a war fought between the British and the French for control over land in North America. While on march he met John Finley, a hunter, whose talk of the Kentucky wilderness greatly influenced Boone's career. When Braddock's command was destroyed by a French and Indian ambush, Boone fled for his life on horseback.

Boone married Rebecca Bryan on August 14, 1756, and settled down in North Carolina, believing that he had all he needed—"a good gun, a good horse, and a good wife." Finley's stories of Kentucky, though, never really left Boone's mind.

### *Expeditions and settlement*

In 1767 Boone led his first expedition as far westward as the area of Floyd County, Kentucky. In 1769, with Finley and four others, he cleared a trail through the Cumber-



*Daniel Boone.*

land Gap that soon became a highway to the frontier. As an agent for Richard Henderson (1735–1785) and his Transylvania Company, Boone led the first group of colonists to Kentucky, reaching the site of Boonesborough in April 1775. Later that year he brought west another party, which included his family.

Boone became the leader of the Kentucky settlement, as hunter, surveyor (a person who measures and plots land), and Indian fighter. When Kentucky became a county of Virginia, he was given the rank of major in the militia. Boone's misfortunes began in July 1776, when his daughter was captured by Shawnee and Cherokee tribespeople. He was

able to rescue her but two years later was himself captured by the Shawnee. Though he escaped and helped defend Boonesborough against Indian raiders, while on his way east he was robbed of money other settlers had given him to buy land. He was forced to repay the angry settlers. From this time on, Boone was followed by debts and lawsuits.

### ***Moving westward***

Boone held many government offices, including lieutenant colonel of Fayette County, legislative representative, and sheriff. In 1786 he moved to Maysville, Kentucky, and was elected to the legislature. Bad luck continued to follow him, however; he lost his land because of a mistake made in the records. In 1788 he abandoned Kentucky and moved to Point Pleasant in what is now West Virginia. He was appointed lieutenant colonel of Kanawha County in 1789 and its legislative delegate in 1791.

Boone and his family later moved west to Spain's Alta Luisiana (or Upper Louisiana, now Missouri). When asked why he had left Kentucky, he answered, "Too many people! Too crowded, too crowded! I want some elbow room." What he really wanted was to settle on land that would not be taken away from him later. The Spaniards were pleased to have him as a colonist, giving him a large land grant and a position of leadership in his district. However, when the United States took over the land, Boone's claim was denied once again, although Congress restored part of it in 1814.

### ***Later life***

Boone took great satisfaction from traveling back to his beloved Kentucky in about 1810 to pay off his outstanding debts,

although he was left with only fifty cents. After his wife died three years later, Boone spent his remaining years in St. Charles, Missouri, at the home of his son. He died there on September 26, 1820.

Boone was moderately well known from several books about his wilderness adventures when Lord Byron (1788–1824) wrote about him in the 1823 poem *Don Juan*. This made the explorer world famous three years after his death and led people to tell many exaggerated stories about him. Love of adventure, skill in the outdoors, and dignity in the face of misfortune made Daniel Boone a symbol of early America.

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## JOHN WILKES BOOTH

**Born:** May 10, 1838

**Bel Air, Maryland**

**Died:** April 26, 1865

**Port Royal, Virginia**

*American assassin and actor*

One of the most promising American actors of his time, John Wilkes Booth was a vocal supporter of the

South during the Civil War (1861–65) and was the assassin of President Abraham Lincoln (1809–1865).

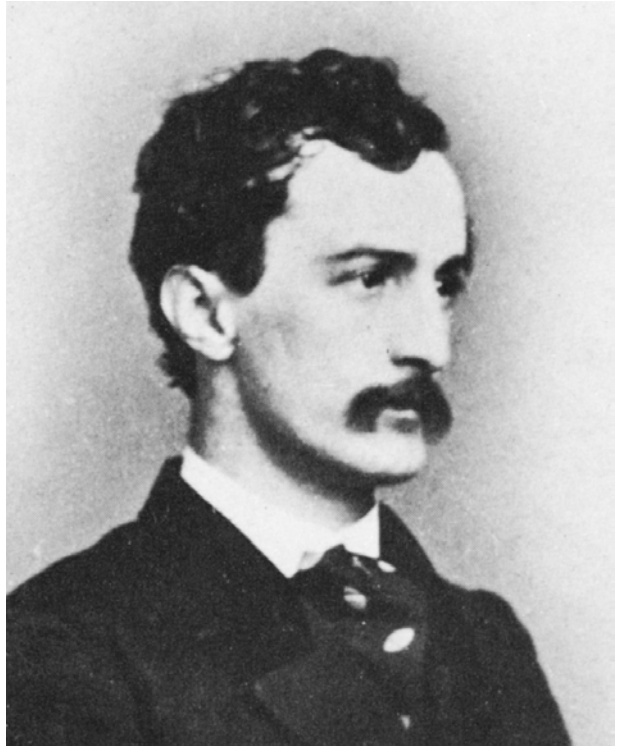
### *Son of an actor*

John Wilkes Booth was born in Bel Air, Maryland, the son of Junius Brutus Booth, an actor, and Mary Ann Holmes. He was a spoiled child whose education was limited because of his failure to attend school regularly. His father was often on the road, appearing in plays in other parts of the country, and he died when Booth was only fourteen years old.

Booth was very handsome and charming, and he decided while still in his teens to become an actor like his father and his brother Edwin. Although he sometimes refused to learn his lines and was unwilling to work very hard at acting, he had natural talent that made him popular in performances of the plays of William Shakespeare (1564–1616), especially in Richmond, Virginia. In 1860, the year Lincoln was elected president, Booth became more popular as he played to approving audiences across the country. It seemed that he would soon be famous.

### *Sympathized with the South*

Unlike the rest of his family, John Wilkes Booth had always been a supporter of the South. He believed the Civil War was necessary to maintain Southern freedom. Booth resented the Northern position that slavery had to be outlawed. He attended the execution of John Brown (1800–1859), one of the most famous abolitionists (opponents of slavery) in history. Booth wrote that he considered abolitionists to be “traitors” and that they deserved the same fate as Brown.



*John Wilkes Booth.*

When a breathing problem in 1863 forced Booth to leave the stage for a while, he began to work on a plan to kidnap President Lincoln and deliver him to Richmond. He may have intended to use the president in an exchange to secure the release of some Confederate (Southern) prisoners. It is not known whether this was all Booth's idea or if he was acting on the orders of someone else. He enlisted six other Confederate supporters in the scheme. In March 1865 they planned to capture Lincoln near Washington, D.C., but the president failed to appear. Booth's anger over the mission's failure is believed to have led to his decision to assassinate Lincoln.

Booth learned at noon on April 14 that Lincoln would attend a performance of a play called *Our American Cousin* at Ford's Theater in Washington that evening. Vice President Andrew Johnson (1808–1875) and Secretary of State William Seward (1801–1872) were also supposed to be killed, but the other members of Booth's gang failed to carry out these murders. Booth went to the theater in the afternoon and fixed the door of the president's private box so that he would be able to get in later. At about ten o'clock Booth entered the theater, shot Lincoln, and jumped to the stage, shouting "Sic semper tyrannis! (Latin for 'Thus ever to tyrants!') The South is avenged!" Lincoln died the next morning.

#### ***Pursued and killed***

Booth had broken a leg when he jumped to the stage after the shooting. The pain slowed him down as he tried to make his escape, and he and another suspect were forced to seek medical help. A doctor named Samuel Mudd treated Booth's leg and fed the two men. For several days they tried to cross the Potomac River, and when they finally succeeded, they traveled to the farm of Richard Garrett, south of the Rappahannock River. Pursuers found them in Garrett's barn on April 26. When Booth refused to give himself up, the barn was set on fire. His figure was seen briefly just as a shot was fired. Although one of the pursuers claimed to have shot Booth, it is unclear whether he was killed or committed suicide.

Booth's pro-South friends were quickly rounded up and put on trial. Four of them were sentenced to death. Mudd and two others received life sentences. One of these men

died in 1867; the other man and Mudd were both pardoned (allowed to go free and not serve the sentences for the crimes of which they had been convicted) in 1869. John Wilkes Booth, the leader of the group, will be forever remembered for his twisted vision of patriotism. He never understood the horror caused by his act, and he died with these last words: "Tell Mother . . . I died for my country."

#### ***For More Information***

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## WILLIAM BOOTH

**Born:** April 10, 1829

**Nottingham, England**

**Died:** August 20, 1912

**London, England**

*English preacher and humanitarian*

The English evangelist (crusading preacher) William Booth founded the Salvation Army, an international Christian organization for charitable and evangelical work (encouraging people to save their souls through religious faith).

#### ***Early life***

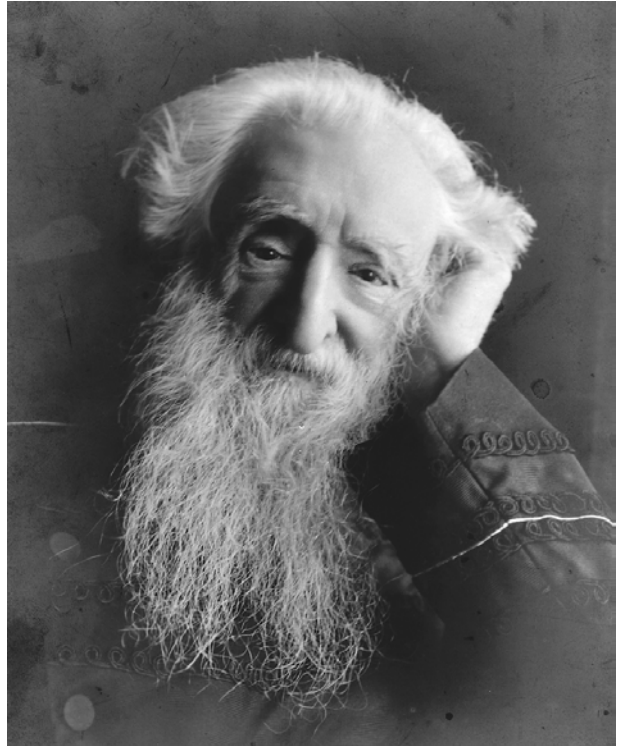
William Booth was born near Nottingham, England, on April 10, 1829, the only son of Samuel and Mary Moss Booth's four

children. His father was a building contractor. As a youth, Booth worked as an assistant to a pawnbroker (a moneylender who requires the deposit of an item belonging to the borrower in exchange for the loan). Neither he nor his parents were especially religious. After a conversion (change in beliefs) at age fifteen, however, Booth began preaching in the streets on behalf of a Methodist chapel. The Methodist religion considers preaching more important than ceremony in inspiring devotion.

In 1849 Booth went to London, where he worked for another pawnbroker. Three years later, however, thinking he could do something to help the many poor people he came into contact with, he became a full-time Methodist preacher. His education ended at age thirteen, but through reading and learning from other preachers, he improved his speaking and writing. In 1855 he married Catherine Mumford, an intelligent and determined woman, and went on to have eight children. Encouraged by her in his religious studies, Booth became a minister in 1858.

### ***Booth's beliefs***

Booth's belief system was simple and unwavering. He drew both his beliefs and his basic practice from the model set by John Wesley (1703–1791), the founder of Methodism, a century earlier. It required no official religious education. He believed that without personal acceptance of Christ as his savior (one who saves another from destruction), the sinful man would endure eternal suffering. Although the opportunity for acceptance was freely offered to all, it was certain to be ignored by the people in the new run-down



*William Booth.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

industrial towns, who openly practiced unlawful and immoral behavior. Thus, it was necessary for preachers to reach the ignorant, the drunks, and the criminals and offer them the chance of saving their souls.

Driven by this purpose, in 1861 the Booths left Methodism, and in 1865 they established the Christian Mission in East London, England. During the next twelve years Booth developed the preaching methods later employed by the Salvation Army. Among these were the use of secular (nonreligious) living quarters and the use of reformed sinners as workers. Booth was mainly interested in saving souls. He held no



extreme political or social views, and he only gradually came to accept that social improvement might have to come before religious conversion. Thus he slowly built a social program of food kitchens, housing, and group organization. He wrote, however, "The Social is the bait, but it is Salvation that is the hook that lands the fish."

The conversion of the Christian Mission into the Salvation Army occurred somewhat accidentally in 1878. Booth had earlier expressed the seriousness of his mission in military terms, titles, and ideas. This organizational style, not unique to his army, was in tune with the current popularity of and respect for the military. The army's paper, the *War Cry*, appeared at the end of 1879. Although the army met with considerable opposition through the 1880s, by 1890 Booth had become internationally famous. The day-to-day administrative work of the Salvation Army fell increasingly to Bramwell Booth, General Booth's oldest child and his chief of staff.

Mrs. Booth died in 1890, the year in which Booth wrote, with much assistance from a reforming journalist named W. T. Stead, his famous book, *In Darkest England and the Way Out*. In it Booth colorfully and sympathetically detailed the problems of the people his army most often tried to reach, and he insisted that the "way out" must involve the changing of men as well as their surroundings.

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## LUCREZIA BORGIA

**Born:** April 18, 1480

**Rome, Italy**

**Died:** June 24, 1519

**Ferrara, Italy**

*Italian duchess*

Lucrezia Borgia, Duchess of Ferrara, earned a reputation as a political schemer in fifteenth century Italy. In actuality, she was simply used by her father and brother to further their own political goals.

#### **Early life**

Lucrezia Borgia was born during Italy's Renaissance period (1320–1520), a time when artists, architects, and scientists rose to world appreciation. She was born into one of the most well-known families in world history: the Borgias, who sought to control as much of Italy as they could. The Borgias legacy, however, is not one to be desired, as they earned a reputation for being evil, violent, and politically corrupt.

Lucrezia Borgia was born on April 18, 1480, the daughter of Cardinal Rodrigo Borgia (c. 1431–1503), later to become Pope Alexander VI, and his mistress Vannozza Cat-

tanei, who was also the mother of Lucrezia's two older brothers, Cesare and Giovanni. The task of raising Lucrezia, however, was given to Rodrigo's cousin, the widow Adriana daMila. While living in a palace in Rome, Lucrezia was educated at the Convent of St. Sixtus on Via Appia. Lucrezia was slender with light blue-green eyes and golden hair, which she later bleached to maintain its goldenness. A painting by Pinturicchio (1454–1513), "Disputation of Saint Catherine," is said to be modeled after her. It portrays a slender, young woman with wavy, blonde hair cascading down her back.

### *The first marriage*

Young Lucrezia was no more than eleven when she was first affected by the political ambitions of her father (who had by this time become Pope Alexander VI) and her older brother, Cesare. Her father annulled (cancelled) a marriage contract between Lucrezia and a Spanish nobleman. Instead he gave Lucrezia to Giovanni Sforza, lord of Pesaro, a twenty-seven-year old with a fierce temper.

By the time Lucrezia was seventeen, Alexander and Cesare, were looking to align themselves with Spain and Naples against France and the Sforza family. Sensing he was losing favor with the Borgia family, Giovanni fled for his life. Soon Lucrezia's marriage was annulled and Giovanni was humiliated.

### *The second marriage*

For Lucrezia's next husband, Cesare and Rodrigo chose seventeen-year-old Alfonso of Aragon, the Duke of Bisceglie and son of the late king of Naples. But by the time her first marriage was officially annulled on December 27, 1497, Lucrezia was six months preg-



*Lucrezia Borgia.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

nant. Rumors swirled throughout Italy as to who the father was.

Alfonso of Aragon was reputed to be a handsome youth with fine manners, and by all evidence Lucrezia truly loved him. But only a year later, political changes were once again stirring. Alexander and Cesare now looked to align with France, and Lucrezia's marriage to Alfonso stood in the way. Fearing for his life, Alfonso also fled Rome. Lucrezia met up with her husband in Nepi and soon the two returned to Rome.

On July 15, 1500, hired killers attacked Alfonso, stabbing him several times. On August 18, as Alfonso was recovering, Cesare

reportedly came to him and whispered in his ear that “what was not finished at breakfast would be complete by dinner.” Returning to Alfonso’s room later that day, Cesare ordered everyone out and directed his strongman to strangle Lucrezia’s young husband.

Left a widow at the age of twenty, Lucrezia spent most of her time weeping over the loss of her husband. Tired of watching her mourn, her father and brother sent her to Nepi in the Etruscan Hills. On her return to Rome in November 1500, she began assisting her father as a sort of secretary, often opening and responding to his mail when he was not in residence.

### ***A new husband***

Once again politics determined Lucrezia’s marriage to the twenty-four-year-old widower Alfonso d’Este, eldest son of Ercole d’Este, Duke of Ferrara. Lucrezia was eager for the marriage. She regarded Rome as a prison and thought she would have a better chance of leading her own life in Ferrara, away from her ambitious father and brother.

On February 2, 1502, Lucrezia and Alfonso were wed. Lucrezia had married a man who not only was interested in artillery, tournaments, dogs, and horses, but who also played the viol (a musical instrument that was popular during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries) and made pottery. On the other hand, he was also known for his cruelty, stinging, and strange behavior.

### ***Life in Ferrara***

The people of Ferrara adored Lucrezia, praising her for her beauty and “inner grace of personality.” Content to socialize with

artists, courtiers, poets, and citizens of the Renaissance court, she helped make Ferrara a center for artists and writers.

In 1503 Alexander died, along with many of Cesare’s political plans. Finally, some stability appeared in Lucrezia’s life. When Ercole died in 1505, she and Alfonso became the reigning duke and duchess of Ferrara. Lucrezia had several children by Alfonso d’Este. In 1512 Lucrezia withdrew from public life, possibly from the news that Rodrigo, her son by Alfonso of Aragon, had died. She began to spend more time in her apartments or in nearby convents, and turned to religion.

As the years progressed, her body thickened, and she was said to have aged greatly. She also suffered from spells of deep sadness. On June 14, 1519, while giving birth to a stillborn girl (dead upon birth), she developed a fever that caused her to lose much of her strength. She died ten days later at the age of thirty-nine.

Many historians view Lucrezia Borgia as a political pawn whose marriages were used for her family’s political gains. Born into a vicious and greedy family, Lucrezia was very much a product of her times, and she accepted these ambitions and their consequences for the good of the family.

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## P. W. BOTH A

**Born:** January 12, 1916

**Orange Free State, South Africa**

*South African political leader, president,  
and prime minister*

After serving for six years as prime minister, P. W. Botha became the first executive state president of the Republic of South Africa in 1984. His administration was marked by tension and riots. He tried to improve conditions for nonwhite residents of South Africa, but he also used force to take down opposition. Botha is best known for his stubbornness, a trait that earned him the nickname of “The Old Crocodile.”

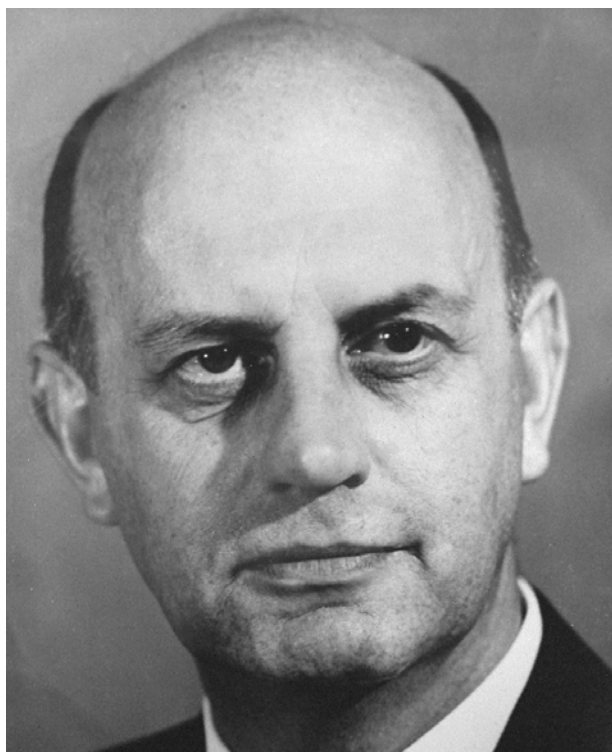
### ***Afrikaner upbringing***

Pieter Willem Botha was born on January 12, 1916, in the Paul Roux district of the Orange Free State. He is what is referred to in South Africa as an Afrikaner, a white person who speaks Afrikaans (a form of the Dutch language) as his native language. Botha's father, also named Pieter, fought in the Boer War (1899–1902). In this war the Boers, white descendants of Dutch colonists who controlled two republics in South Africa, tried to prevent the takeover of those republics by the British. Botha attended secondary school in Bethlehem. He started his career in politics as a teenager, joining the National Party. He entered the University of the Orange Free State in Bloemfontein, South Africa, to study law, but left the university at age twenty in order to begin a full-time political career.

The rural Orange Free State was among the most Afrikaans-speaking regions of South Africa. For many decades it was known for its extreme political conservatism (desire to maintain traditions and opposition to change) among whites. Thus, it was not surprising that Botha became involved with the conservative National Party, although at the time it was still a minor party in South African white politics. Botha was appointed as a political organizer for the Nationalists in neighboring Cape Province. In March 1943 he married Elsie Rossouw, with whom he had two sons and three daughters. He was put in charge of publicity during the campaign leading up to the May 1948 general election, an election the National Party unexpectedly won.

### ***Many different government jobs***

In the 1948 election Botha won a seat in the House of Assembly, the lower chamber of South Africa's parliament. He would hold this seat for the next thirty-six years. Also in 1948 Botha was made chief secretary of the National Party in the Cape Province, a post he held for a decade. These years are said to have changed Botha's conservatism in favor of “Cape liberalism,” meaning that he became more open to change and aware of the needs of nonwhite people in the province. Botha continued to earn promotions and take on more responsibility. In 1966 he became defense minister, a position he held for the next fourteen years. During this time, military spending increased greatly, and South Africa produced enough of its own weapons that it no longer needed to get them from other countries. Botha also created new opportunities in the military for women and nonwhite South Africans.



P. W. Botha.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

When Prime Minister B. J. Vorster resigned in 1978, Botha won the election to succeed him, a result that took many by surprise. Botha's campaign was helped by a scandal that hurt the reputation of another candidate. Botha announced his intention to direct the country toward reform and away from the policy of "apartheid" (separation of blacks and whites) that had been a way of life in South Africa. The new prime minister told his fellow whites to "adapt or die." The conservatives in the National Party strongly resisted this suggestion, and for years the struggle over policy within the party hurt Botha's attempts at reform. One example of

this was the new South African Constitution of 1983, which for the first time admitted nonwhites to membership in parliament. It was only a minor improvement, as the real power remained in the hands of the white president and white members of parliament.

### *More tension, more pressure*

In 1984 Botha was elevated to the post of executive state president, and the position of prime minister was eliminated. He introduced some reforms, such as allowing the creation of black labor unions and ending the ban on marriages between people of different races. However, his lack of a firm resolve was seen as a barrier to real change. As promises to give full citizenship rights to all blacks and mixed-race people remained unfulfilled, tensions within the country's black population increased. Botha was also criticized for his refusal to free Nelson Mandela (1918–), a black leader of the African National Congress who had been imprisoned since 1964 for treason. The country was torn by rioting and began to be pressured by other countries to end the system of apartheid and free Mandela.

In May 1986 the government backed a series of attacks in Zimbabwe, Botswana, Zambia, and South Africa. The attacks led to more rioting, which left dozens of people dead, tens of thousands homeless, and caused an increase in racial tension. By June 12 the government declared a national state of emergency. Other countries condemned Botha's government for these activities and decided to stop trading with South Africa. Still, Botha and the National Party held strong, and the price of gold, South Africa's chief export, rose sharply. By the time of the

parliamentary elections in March 1988, Botha had begun to return to his conservative roots and ordered a ban on organizations that opposed apartheid.

### ***International relations***

In terms of South Africa's international relations, Botha made some attempts at friendship with other countries—although he also warned South Africans to be aware of the possibility of a “total onslaught” against the republic by foreign countries. He met with President Kaunda of Zambia in 1982, and in March 1984 he signed the “Nkomati Accord” with President Samora Machel of Mozambique. This agreement sought to end fighting along the common border between the two countries. Botha also officially visited seven Western European capitals, the first South African head of government to do so in many decades.

### ***Botha and Mandela meet***

In January 1989 Botha suffered a stroke that left him partially paralyzed. He retained the presidency, but it was rumored that he would resign. On July 5, 1989, a historic meeting took place between Botha and Mandela. Mandela was not released from prison at that time, but the meeting was seen as a breakthrough between the white ruling party and the black majority. Botha officially resigned from the presidency on August 14, 1989, and on May 6, 1990, he resigned from the National Party.

### ***Looking back***

Botha has refused to apologize for his role in maintaining the apartheid system,

which was eventually eliminated under Fredrik W. de Klerk (1936–), who took over after Botha's resignation. In 1996 and 1997 Botha was charged in connection with a series of bombings that had taken place in the 1980s against the African National Congress. In 1998 he was put on trial and was implicated in the 1988 bombing of the headquarters of the South African Council of Churches. Botha's refusal to testify led a court to find him guilty of contempt (showing disrespect for the authority and dignity of a court by disobedience) in August 1998. He was ordered to pay \$1,600 or serve a year in prison. Botha appealed the decision. In June 1999 the High Court in Cape Town, South Africa, overturned the conviction.

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**SANDRO  
BOTTICELLI**

**Born: c. 1445**

**Florence, Italy**

**Died: c. 1510**

**Florence, Italy**

*Italian painter and artist*



Sandro Botticelli.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

The Italian painter Botticelli was one of the major artists in Florence during the Renaissance (a period of revived interest in Greek and Roman culture that began in Italy during the fourteenth century).

### Early style

Sandro Botticelli was born in 1445 in Florence, Italy, the son of a tanner (one who converts animal skins into leather). Not much is known about his childhood or early life. In 1460 he began training with Fra Filippo Lippi (c. 1406–1469), one of the greatest painters of the Renaissance. Botticelli's

first works followed the current version of the popular style in Florence used by artists such as Andrea del Verrocchio (1435–1488). This style placed great importance on the human figure rather than on space. Botticelli's major early works are *Fortitude* (1470) and *St. Sebastian* (1474). In some of these he changed the appearance of muscular energy and physical action found in Verrocchio's work. The people in Botticelli's work are shown as melancholy and thoughtful.

These qualities are most evident in Botticelli's best-known works, *Spring* and the *Birth of Venus*, executed for the estate of a cousin of Lorenzo the Magnificent, Lorenzo di Pierfrancesco de' Medici. Their precise subject matter has been the subject of much debate and has never been agreed on. Both works were certainly designed with the help of a scholar, but if there was a story invented for the occasion that would explain the works, it was not recorded. Since Venus has a central position in both works, it is possible to consider the two figures of Venus as a contrasting pair.

Botticelli continued using this early style after 1480 (the *Birth* is perhaps as late as 1485), but a new style soon emerged in frescoes (paintings done on moist plaster with water-based colors) such as *St. Augustine* (1480) in the Church of the Ognissanti, Florence; the *Annunciation* (1481) for San Martino, Florence; and three frescoes (1481–82) in the Sistine Chapel, Rome, Italy, executed during Botticelli's only trip away from Florence. These frescoes show a new concern with the construction of stage like spaces and stiffer figures, also seen in a series of altarpieces (works of art that decorate the space above and behind an altar) of 1485 and 1489. The influ-

ence of the work of Domenico Ghirlandaio (1449–1494) and of Flemish painting can be seen, but it is clear that Botticelli's art had not undergone any major changes.

### **Mature style**

After 1490 Botticelli concentrated on paintings with many small figures, so that the entire picture surface seemed more alive. Many works exhibited this new method, such as the *Calumny of Apelles*, a drawing of a description of a painting by an ancient Roman writer; the *Crucifixion*, with a rain of arrows falling on a view of Florence in the background; the *Last Communion of St. Jerome*, the most intense of several works showing physical collapse of the body; and the *Nativity* (1501), which used an old design of Fra Angelico (c. 1400–1455) and an inscription referring to current predictions of the end of the world.

Botticelli became crippled in his later years and failed to receive painting assignments. He may have continued to work on his set of drawings (never finished) illustrating Dante's (1265–1321) *Divine Comedy*. By about 1504, when the young Raphael (1483–1520) came to Florence to observe the new styles of Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) and Michelangelo (1475–1564), Botticelli's art must have seemed old-fashioned, although it had been widely copied in the 1490s.

### **Wide swings in popularity**

Sandro Botticelli was born several generations after Donatello (1386–1466), Masaccio (1401–1428), and their associates who gave Florentine art its direction, and just before it took a great turn in the works of Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, and others. Botticelli worked in an established, almost

traditional manner at a point just before such a style went out of fashion.

Successful in the 1470s and 1480s, then forgotten at the time of his death in 1510, Botticelli was popular in the nineteenth century, especially in England.

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## MARGARET BOURKE-WHITE

**Born:** June 14, 1904

**New York, New York**

**Died:** August 27, 1971

**Darien, Connecticut**

*American photographer and journalist*

American photographer Margaret Bourke-White was a leader in the new field of photo-journalism. As a staff photographer for *Fortune* and *Life* magazines, she covered the major political and social issues of the 1930s and 1940s.

### **Discovering photography**

Born in New York City on June 14, 1904, Margaret Bourke-White was the daughter of Joseph and Minnie White. (She





Margaret Bourke-White.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

added “Bourke,” her mother’s name, after her first marriage ended.) Raised in a strict household, Bourke-White attended local public schools in Bound Brook, New Jersey, after her family moved there. In high school Bourke-White served as the yearbook editor and showed promise in her writing talents.

Bourke-White attended several different universities during her moves back and forth from the Midwest and the East. She first revealed her talent for photography while a student at Cornell University in upstate New York, where she also completed her bachelor’s degree in 1927. Using a secondhand Ica Reflex camera with a broken lens, she sold

pictures of the scenic campus to other students. After graduation Bourke-White opened a studio in Cleveland, Ohio, where she found the industrial landscape “a photographic paradise.” Initially specializing in architectural photography, her prints of the Otis Steel factory came to the attention of *Time* magazine publisher Henry Luce, who was planning a new publication devoted to the glamour of business.

### *Building a career*

In the spring of 1929 Bourke-White accepted Luce’s offer to become the first staff photographer for *Fortune* magazine, which made its debut in February 1930. Her subjects included the Swift meatpacking company, shoemaking, watches, glass, paper mills, orchids, and banks. Excited by the drama of the machine, she made several trips to the Soviet Union (the former country made up of Russia and several smaller nations) and was the first photographer to seriously document its rapid industrial development. She published her work in the book *Eyes on Russia* (1931).

Bourke-White, working out of a New York City studio in the new Chrysler Building, also handled profitable advertising accounts. In 1934, in the midst of the Depression (a decade-long period of severe economic hardship in the 1930s), she earned over \$35,000. But a *Fortune* assignment to cover the drought (a severe shortage of water) in the Midwest states opened her eyes to human suffering and steered her away from advertising work. She began to view photography less as a purely artistic medium and more as a powerful tool for informing the public. In 1936 she worked with Erskine Caldwell (1903–1987), the author of *Tobacco Road*, on a photo-essay

revealing social conditions in the South. The results of their efforts became her best-known book, *You Have Seen Their Faces* (1937).

In the fall of 1936 Bourke-White joined the staff of *Life* magazine, which popularized the photo-essay. Her picture of the Fort Peck dam in Montana adorned the cover of *Life* magazine's first issue, November 11, 1936. On one of her first assignments she flew to the Arctic circle. While covering the Louisville flood in 1937 she composed her most famous single photograph: a contrast between a line of African Americans waiting for emergency relief and a billboard with a picture of an untroubled white family in a car and a caption celebrating the American way of life.

### Later years

During World War II (1939-45; a war in which the Allies—Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States—fought against the Axis—Germany, Italy, and Japan), Bourke-White served as a war correspondent affiliated with both *Life* and the U.S. Air Force. She survived a torpedo attack on a ship she was taking to North Africa and accompanied the bombing mission that destroyed the German airfield of El Aouina near Tunis. She later covered the Italian campaign (recorded in the book *They Called It "Purple Heart Valley"*) and was with General George Patton (1885–1945) in the spring of 1945 when his troops opened the gates at Buchenwald, Germany, a concentration camp (a camp for prisoners of war). Her photos revealed the horrors to the world.

In December of 1949 she went to South Africa for five months where she recorded the cruelty of apartheid, the unfair social and political treatment of black people in South Africa.

In 1952 she went to Korea, where her pictures focused on family sorrows arising from war.

Shortly after her return from Korea she noticed signs of Parkinson's disease, the nerve disorder which she battled for the remainder of her life. Her autobiography (the story of a person's own life), *Portrait of Myself*, was started in 1955 and completed in 1963. On August 27, 1971, Margaret Bourke-White died at her home in Darien, Connecticut. She left behind a legacy as a determined woman, an innovative visual artist, and a compassionate human observer.

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## BOUTROS BOUTROS-GHALI

**Born:** November 14, 1922

**Cairo, Egypt**

*Egyptian diplomat, lawyer, and  
UN secretary-general*

Appointed the sixth secretary-general of the United Nations (UN) in November 1991, Boutros Boutros-



*Boutros Boutros-Ghali.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

Ghali is respected around the world for his distinguished career as a lawyer, scholar, and international diplomat. As secretary-general of the United Nations, he sought to reestablish the leadership role of that international organization in world affairs.

### *Upbringing and education*

Boutros Boutros-Ghali was born in Cairo, Egypt, on November 14, 1922, into one of the Egyptian Coptic-Christian community's most influential and wealthiest families. As a youth Boutros-Ghali displayed a sense of humor that remains a quality for which he is well liked. His father, Yusuf, at one time served as the country's finance minister, while

a grandfather had been prime minister of Egypt from 1908 until his assassination in 1910. At a young age Boutros-Ghali learned about Western culture. His sophistication and fluency in English and French, in addition to Arabic, can be traced to his upbringing in an upper-class family and his formal schooling. After completing a law degree in 1946 at Cairo University in Egypt, he spent the next four years in France, earning diplomas in higher studies in public law and in economics, as well as a doctorate in international law from Paris University in 1949.

### *Life as a scholar and statesman*

Returning to Egypt, Boutros-Ghali became a professor of international law and international relations at Cairo University. During his twenty-eight years in university life he was a Fulbright scholar at Columbia University (1954–1955) in New York City, and director of the research center at the Hague Academy of International Law (1967–1969) in the Netherlands. He participated in many international conferences and delivered guest lectures at major universities abroad—from Princeton University in the United States to the Warsaw Institute of International Relations in Poland to Nairobi University in Kenya. His list of scholarly publications ran to more than one hundred articles on foreign policy problems and at least twelve books. Membership on the UN Commission of International Law (1979–1992) gave him a better understanding of the workings of that organization, and it would serve him well later in his career.

Boutros-Ghali left university life in October 1977 with what proved to be an excellent sense of timing. Appointed Egyptian minister of state for foreign affairs, he accompanied President Anwar Sadat (1918–1981), who

wanted to find a way to end the Arab-Israeli conflict, on the historic journey to Jerusalem to meet with the prime minister of Israel on November 19, 1977. After this Boutros-Ghali attended the peace summit at Camp David in the United States the following September as part of the Egyptian delegation. During the 1980s he was involved in Egyptian politics as a leading member of the National Democratic Party and as a delegate to the Egyptian parliament. In May 1991 President Hosni Mubarak (1929–) promoted him to deputy prime minister for international affairs. Boutros-Ghali's deepening involvement in Egyptian national and external affairs ended toward the end of 1991, with the invitation to head the United Nations.

### *To the United Nations*

Upon taking office in January 1992, UN Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali became the world's leading spokesman for, and practitioner of, internationalism (the goal of which is for countries to peacefully cooperate to solve problems). The new head of the UN viewed the end of the Cold War (the decades-long rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union that saw each country significantly build up its military) and the example set during the Persian Gulf War (a war that began after Iraq invaded Kuwait in 1990) as presenting a historic opportunity for changing the nature of world politics. Boutros-Ghali used his position at the UN to call all countries and governments to fulfill the original 1945 UN pledge of a global political system. He held up the United Nations and its various agencies as an organization that could promote international peace and security, economic development, and human rights through international cooperation. But on the

immediate and more practical level, much of his energy went toward putting the United Nations' own house in order.

The secretary-general's ambitious list of UN-related goals included: making the organization more efficient and coordinating the efforts of UN workers in New York City with those in Geneva, Switzerland; making sure that the funding of the United Nations would be enough to meet the needs of the increased number and complexity of its missions around the globe; and strengthening the commitment of each of the more than 180 member states to the United Nations. The most important of Boutros-Ghali's goals was to broaden the United Nations' role of peacekeeping. His goal was to ensure greater effectiveness by the time of the United Nations' fiftieth anniversary in 1995.

This program of reform made Secretary-General Boutros-Ghali a controversial figure in world affairs. He found himself having sharp political differences, not only with the United States and other Western governments, but also with UN military field commanders. This seemed uncharacteristic for the rather modest former Egyptian statesman and scholar. Nevertheless, he continued to commit the United Nations to searching for peace in Cyprus, the Middle East, Angola, Cambodia, and elsewhere.

### *Silencing the critics*

Indeed, that Boutros-Ghali was named secretary-general had surprised many UN experts, who generally dismissed him as too moderate and lacking personality. They saw his selection as a gesture toward developing nations, especially the fifty-one African countries that belonged to the United Nations. Noting that he

was sixty-nine, they thought he would be more of a temporary caretaker than a voice for change for an action-oriented United Nations. But the secretary-general's critics apparently had underestimated his leadership qualities and inner resolve. Certainly, Boutros-Ghali's long public career and experience in international and Middle East diplomacy were impressive qualifications for the difficult position.

Boutros-Ghali continued to be committed to bringing democracy to nations that had a history of conflict. He oversaw the stationing of more than seventy thousand UN peace-keeping troops during his years in office. Boutros-Ghali remained willing to speak his mind until the end of his term in 1996.

After leaving the United Nations, in 1997 Boutros-Ghali was named secretary-general of the International Organization of the Francophonie. The organization has fifty-one member states that together make up the French-speaking world. In 2001 the University of Ottawa in Canada recognized the outstanding role Boutros-Ghali played in world politics by awarding him an honorary doctorate.

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## RAY BRADBURY

**Born:** August 22, 1920

**Waukegan, Illinois**

*American writer, editor, poet, screenwriter, and dramatist*

Ray Bradbury was among the first authors to combine the ideas of science fiction with a more developed writing style. In much of Bradbury's fiction, everyday events are transformed into unusual and sometimes dangerous situations.

### **Early life**

Ray Bradbury was born on August 22, 1920, in Waukegan, Illinois, to Leonard Spaulding Bradbury and Esther Marie (Moberg) Bradbury. His father was a lineman for the electric company. He was greatly influenced by his Aunt Neva, a costume designer and dressmaker, who took him to plays and encouraged him to use his imagination. At the age of twelve, after seeing the performance of a magician named Mr. Electrico at a carnival, Bradbury began to spend hours every day writing stories. Bradbury's family moved to Arizona briefly before settling in Los Angeles, California, in 1934. Bradbury continued to write and also spent a great deal of time reading in libraries and going to the movies.

### **Early career**

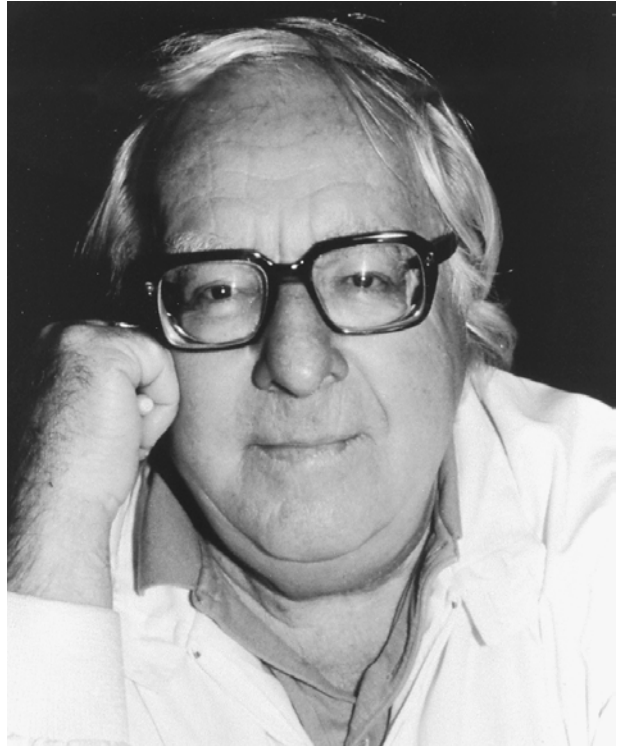
After graduating from high school in 1938, Bradbury was turned down for military service because of bad eyesight. He earned a living selling newspapers while working on his writing. He sold his first story in 1943, and others were published in such magazines as *Black Mask*, *Amazing Stories*, and *Weird Tales*. *Dark Carnival* (1947) is a collection of Bradbury's early stories of fantasy (fiction with unusual plots and characters). Themes such as the need to retain human values and the importance of the imagination are found in these stories. Many of these pieces were republished with new material in *The October Country* (1955).

The publication of *The Martian Chronicles* (1950), an account of man's colonization of Mars, established Bradbury's reputation as an author of quality science fiction. *The Martian Chronicles* contain tales of space travel and adapting to an environment, and combines many of Bradbury's major themes, including the conflict between individual and social expectations (that is, freedom versus confinement and going along with the crowd) and the idea of space as a frontier wilderness. *The Martian Chronicles* also reflects many issues of the post-World War II era, such as racism (unequal treatment based on race), censorship (preventing the viewing of materials such as books or films that are considered harmful), and the threat of nuclear war. In another collection of short stories, *The Illustrated Man* (1951), the stories are based on the tattoos of the title character.

### Other works

Bradbury's later short story collections were not as well received as his earlier work. Although Bradbury used many of the same methods in writing these stories as in his science fiction works, he shifted his focus from outer space to more familiar earthbound settings. *Dandelion Wine* (1957), for example, has as its main subject the midwestern youth of Bradbury's main character, Douglas Spaulding. Other collections include *A Medicine for Melancholy* (1959), *The Machineries of Joy* (1964), *I Sing the Body Electric!* (1969), and *Long after Midnight* (1976). Many of Bradbury's stories have been filmed for science fiction television programs such as *The Twilight Zone* and *Alfred Hitchcock Presents*.

Bradbury also wrote several adult novels. The first of these, *Fahrenheit 451* (1953), concerns a future society in which books are



Ray Bradbury.

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burned because they are perceived as threats to social order. In *Something Wicked This Way Comes* (1962) a father attempts to save his son and a friend from the evil forces of a mysterious traveling carnival. Both of these novels were made into films. *Death Is a Lonely Business* (1985) is a detective story featuring Douglas Spaulding, the main character of *Dandelion Wine*, as a struggling magazine writer.

### Still active

Over the past five decades Bradbury has managed to produce a tremendous amount of different kinds of work, including short stories, plays, novels, film scripts, poems, chil-

dren's books, and nonfiction. He gives the credit to the steady writing routine that he has followed every day for fifty years. He also claims to remember everything about every book he has read and every film he has seen.

Bradbury also uses an unusual method of writing. In *Extrapolation* William F. Touponce quotes Bradbury saying: "In my early twenties I floundered into a word-association process in which I simply got out of bed each morning, walked to my desk, and put down any word or series of words that happened along in my head." Bradbury suffered a stroke in November 1999 but recovered. In November 2000 he received a National Book Award for lifetime achievement. Bradbury published a new novel, *From the Dust Returned*, in 2001.

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## ED BRADLEY

**Born:** June 22, 1941

**Philadelphia, Pennsylvania**

*African American television and radio journalist*

**A**ward-winning American journalist Ed Bradley remains best-known for his work on the weekly news program *60 Minutes*.

### Early days

Edward R. Bradley was born on June 22, 1941. His parents separated soon after he was born. His father moved to Detroit, Michigan, where he owned a vending-machine business and a restaurant. Bradley lived with his mother in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and spent part of each summer with his father. His parents worked very hard. Often they held two jobs that kept them busy twenty hours a day. Even so, they never let him think he could not make a better life for himself. They told him he could be anything he wanted to be and he believed it.

### Drifting into broadcast news

Bradley received a bachelor's degree in education from Cheyney State College in Cheyney, Pennsylvania, in 1964. To make extra money during his college years, he delivered telephone books and gave fellow students rides at fifty cents a trip. After graduating from college he taught sixth grade. He got a chance to work in radio as a disc jockey and news reporter for WDAS-FM radio in Philadelphia, but he was not paid for his work.

Bradley covered his first news story when rioting broke out in north Philadelphia. WDAS found itself short-staffed (without enough people). Bradley went to the station and got a tape recorder and an engineer (a technical person). He said, "For the next 48 hours, without sleep, I covered the riots.... I was getting these great scoops [first interviews].... And that kind of hooked me on the idea of doing live stuff, going out and covering the news."

Bradley proved himself to be a capable newsman. The station began to pay him a

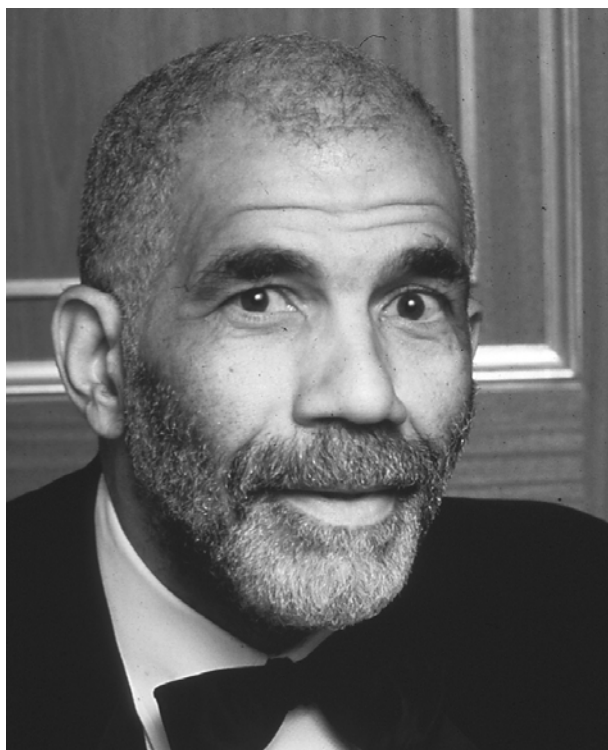
small salary—\$1.25 an hour. From there he moved on to WCBS radio, an all-news station, in New York City. He worked there for three and a half years. Then he became bored with his work. He quit and decided to move to Paris, France. Bradley enjoyed the cultural life of Paris. He thought he would write novels and poetry until he ran out of money. Then he took the only job he could find. He joined CBS again as a stringer (an occasional writer) in their Paris office in 1971. Like all stringers, he was only paid for the stories that were accepted.

Bradley wanted to get back into the real news business. He was transferred to the Saigon, Vietnam, office of CBS news in Southeast Asia to cover the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war in which North Vietnam fought against U.S.-backed South Vietnam). While there he was wounded in an attack and eventually was sent back to the United States.

### ***Covering the White House***

After other assignments Bradley covered Jimmy Carter (1924–) in his 1976 campaign for the presidency. After the election CBS assigned him to its Washington, D.C., office where he became the first African American to be a White House correspondent (reporter). Even though it was a very important position, Bradley hated it. It required him to be in a small office, doing the same things day after day. He wanted action.

From that time until 1981, Bradley also served as the anchor (main newscaster) for the CBS *Sunday Night News* and also as principal correspondent for *CBS Reports*. In 1981 he replaced Dan Rather (1931–) as a correspondent for the weekly news program *60 Minutes*.



*Ed Bradley.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

Bradley's work has won him many Emmy Awards (awards for excellence in television) for broadcast journalism as well as other awards for his achievements. A correspondent for CBS's *60 Minutes* since 1981, Bradley has become one of the most visible African Americans on network television news.

### ***Work on 60 Minutes***

Though Bradley resists being pigeon-holed (narrowly described) as an African American reporter and is said to hate covering African American stories, some of his finest moments with CBS occurred when he covered racial issues. "Murder—Teen-age



Style" is one example. His report "Blacks in America: With All Deliberate Speed" was a look at race relations in the United States. He won an Emmy and other awards for the program. The documentary contrasted the status of African Americans in Mississippi and in Philadelphia between 1954 and 1979.

CBS sent Bradley to report on the Vietnamese refugees known as "boat people." "The Boat People" aired in 1979, earning Bradley another Emmy and several other awards. It was also shown on *60 Minutes* in an edited form. Bradley had been considered for *60 Minutes* in the late 1970s, but reporter Harry Reasoner was chosen instead. Then, when Dan Rather left the news program to take over Walter Cronkite's (1916–) position as anchor of the *CBS Evening News*, Bradley was asked to join the program.

### ***The new face on 60 Minutes***

Bradley's presence changed the chemistry (the way things work) of *60 Minutes*, with his sensitive, compassionate approach to interviewing. Dan Rather had been more aggressive. Coworkers and critics alike have pointed out Bradley's ability to establish a rapport (relationship) with his subjects. Mike Wallace, a cohost on *60 Minutes*, remarked that Bradley's approach is "instinctive—he has no idea how he does it." Bradley himself resists analyzing his style. He said in an interview, "I'd rather not think about it and just go out and do it, and it will come naturally." When Bradley interviewed singer Lena Horne (1917–) in December 1981, *TV Guide* described the journalist's work as "a textbook example of what a great television interview can be." Bradley alternated Horne's performances with interview segments in which

Horne discussed her personal and professional life. Bradley created an intimate (personal) portrait of the singer. Bradley said "it told a lot about the way women are treated, a lot of things about the way blacks are treated. It told a lot of things about interracial marriages, difficulties in the film and entertainment industries and how those things have changed and not changed." Bradley has said that he feels "Lena" is among his best work. "Lena" won Bradley his first Emmy as a member of the *60 Minutes* team.

Not all of Bradley's interviews have been friendly ones. He has had many unpleasant interviews because he refuses to back down from unpleasant issues. In a 1995 *TV Guide* viewers poll of active CBS journalists, Bradley was the highest scorer in seven out of eight categories.

### ***Bradley today***

Bradley's need for adventure has not lessened and he still travels often. Bradley summed up his attitude about his career in an interview with *People* magazine in 1983. He said, "The bottom line of this job is fun. And when it stops being fun, then I'll stop doing it." Bradley marked his twenty-first season with *60 Minutes* during the 2000–2001 season. He continues to produce the news stories that made him famous.

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## MATHEW BRADY

**Born:** c. 1823

**Warren County, New York**

**Died:** January 15, 1896

**New York, New York**

*American photographer*

The American photographer, publisher, and historian (a professional writer of history) Mathew Brady was known for his portraits (pictures of a person showing his or her face) of famous people and his vast photographic record of the Civil War (1861–65).

### ***Mysterious background***

Mathew B. Brady (he never knew what the initial “B” stood for) was born in Warren County, New York. The exact place and year are not known. In later life Brady told a reporter, “I go back near 1823–24.” Not much more is known of his parents, Andrew and Julia Brady. Mathew spent his youth in Saratoga Springs, New York, and became a friend of the painter William Page, who was a student of the painter and inventor Samuel F. B. Morse (1791–1872). Around 1839 Brady went to New York City with Page. Nothing certain is known of his activity there until 1843, when the city directory listed his occupation as a jewel-case manufacturer.

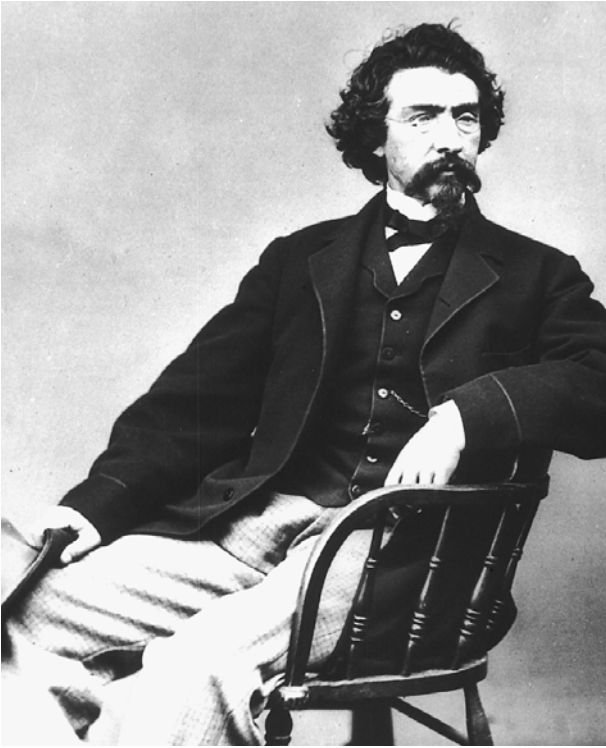
### ***New business***

The process of creating daguerreotypes (a form of photograph in which the picture was formed on metal) had been introduced to America in 1839, and Morse became one

of the first to practice the craft and to teach it. Brady met Morse through Page, and he learned to take daguerreotypes from him. In 1843 Brady added cases specially made for daguerreotypes to his line of goods, and a year later he opened a successful “Daguerreian Miniature Gallery.” Brady had mastered the process so thoroughly that he could produce several different pictures from one sitting, which helped the growth of his business. He also won medals every year from 1844 to 1850 from the American Institute of Photography for the quality of his pictures.

Brady once said that “the camera is the eye of history.” With this in mind, in 1845 he began to build a vast collection of portraits, which he named *The Gallery of Illustrious Americans*. Two years later he opened a studio in Washington, D.C., so that he could have portraits made of presidents, cabinet ministers, congressmen, and other government leaders. The book, published in 1850, was intended to be the first in a series, but it was a failure, and no more editions were made.

Brady traveled to England in 1851 to display his daguerreotypes, which continued to win him praise. Shortly after his return he opened a second New York studio. His eyesight was now failing, and he relied more and more on assistants to do the actual photography. One of these assistants was Alexander Gardner, a Scotsman who knew his way around the newly invented wet-plate photographic process, which was rapidly taking the place of the daguerreotype. Gardner specialized in making enlargements up to 17 by 20 inches, which Brady called “Imperials”; they cost \$750 each. Gardner



*Mathew Brady.*

*Courtesy of the National Archives and  
Records Administration.*

was put in charge of the gallery in Washington in 1858.

Perhaps the most famous of Brady's portraits was the standing figure of Abraham Lincoln (1809–1865) taken at the time of his Cooper Union speech in 1861. Lincoln is reported to have said that the photograph and the speech put him in the White House.

#### ***Ambitious project***

When the Civil War broke out, Brady decided to make a photographic record of

it. The project was a bold one. At his own expense he organized teams of photographers—in his biography James D. Horan states that there were twenty-two of them. Each was equipped with a traveling dark-room, for at that time the pictures had to be processed on the spot. Brady later remembered that he spent over \$100,000 and “had men in all parts of the Army, like a rich newspaper.”

When the war ended, the collection comprised some ten thousand negatives. The project had cost Brady his fortune. He could not afford to pay the storage bill for one set of negatives, which were sold at auction to the War Department. The Anthony Company, a photographic materials dealer, seized a second collection for nonpayment of debts. Today Brady's large and brilliant historical record is divided between the National Archives and the Library of Congress in Washington, D.C.

Although Brady maintained his Washington gallery, he never fully recovered from his business losses. In 1895 he planned a series of slide lectures about the Civil War. While he was preparing them in New York, he became ill and entered the Presbyterian Hospital, where he died on January 15, 1896.

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## JOHANNES BRAHMS

**Born:** May 7, 1833

**Hamburg, Germany**

**Died:** April 3, 1897

**Vienna, Austria**

*German composer, pianist, and conductor*

The German composer (writer of music), pianist, and conductor Johannes Brahms was one of the most significant composers of the nineteenth century. His works combine the warm feeling of the Romantic period with the control of classical influences such as Johann Sebastian Bach (1685–1750) and Ludwig van Beethoven (1770–1827).

### Early life

Johannes Brahms was born in Hamburg, Germany, on May 7, 1833, the son of Johann Jakob and Christina Nissen Brahms. His father, an innkeeper and a musician of moderate ability, taught him to play violin and piano. When Brahms was six years old he created his own method of writing music in order to get the melodies he created on paper. At the age of seven he began studying piano under Otto Cossel. He played a private concert at the age of ten to obtain funds for his future education. Also at ten years old he began piano lessons with Eduard Marxsen (1806–1887).

To help out his family, Brahms gave music lessons and played the piano in taverns and local dance halls while in his early teens. The constant work proved to be a strain on him and affected his health. Brahms

was offered a chance to take a long rest at Winsen-an-der-Luhe, Germany, where he conducted a small male choir for whom he wrote his first choral compositions. Upon his return to Hamburg he gave several concerts, but after failing to win recognition he continued playing at taverns, giving inexpensive piano lessons, and arranging popular music for piano.

### Impressing other musicians

In 1850 Brahms met the Hungarian violinist Eduard Reményi, who introduced him to gypsy dance songs that would influence his later compositions. In the next few years Brahms composed several works for piano. Reményi and Brahms went on several successful concert tours in 1853. They met the German violinist Joseph Joachim (1831–1907), who introduced them to Franz Liszt (1811–1886) at Weimar, Germany. Liszt received them warmly and was greatly impressed with Brahms's compositions. Liszt hoped to recruit him to join his group of composers, but Brahms declined; he was not really a fan of Liszt's music. Joachim also wrote a letter praising Brahms to the composer Robert Schumann (1810–1856).

In 1853 Brahms met Schumann and his wife Clara. Schumann's enthusiasm for the young composer knew no bounds. Schumann wrote articles praising Brahms and also arranged for the publication of Brahms's first compositions. During 1854 Brahms wrote the *Piano Trio No. 1*, the *Variations on a Theme of Schumann* for piano, and the *Ballades* for piano. Also that year Brahms was summoned to Düsseldorf, Germany, when Schumann had a breakdown and attempted suicide. For the next few years Brahms stayed close to the



Johannes Brahms.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Schumanns, assisting Clara even after Schumann's death in 1856. To earn his living, he taught piano privately but also spent some time on concert tours. Two concerts given with the singer Julius Stockhausen served to establish Brahms as an important song composer.

### **Works of the middle years**

Brahms's *Piano Concerto in D Minor* (1858) was performed the next year with Joachim conducting in the German cities of Hanover, Leipzig, and Hamburg. Only in Hamburg was it favorably received. Brahms was also appointed conductor of a ladies' choir in Hamburg, for whom he wrote the

*Marienlieder*. In 1860 Brahms became enraged after hearing claims that all musicians were accepting the experimental musical theories of the "New German" school headed by Liszt. He criticized many of these musicians in the press. During this period Brahms moved to Hamburg and buried himself in composing, throwing in frequent public appearances.

In 1863 Brahms gave a concert in Vienna, Austria, to introduce his songs to the Austrian public. Brahms also met the composer Richard Wagner (1813–1883) at this time. Although Brahms had criticized Wagner in the press, each was still able to admire some things in the other's work on occasion. In 1863 Brahms became conductor of the Singakademie in Vienna. A year later he resigned, but for the rest of his life Vienna was home to him. He began to do what he had always wished: to make composing his main source of income. As his fame and popularity grew, he composed more and more with only some occasional teaching and performing. In 1865 Brahms's mother, long separated from her husband, died. During the next year Brahms worked on the *German Requiem* in her memory.

The next years saw an increase in composing activity. Brahms's most important publications were the *Variations on a Theme of Paganini* for piano, the *String Sextet in G Major*, and several song collections. It is not always possible to date Brahms's compositions exactly because of his habit of revising a work or adding to it frequently. Thus, the *German Requiem*, practically finished in 1866, was not published in its final form until 1869. It was also given its first complete performance that year.

### Late masterpieces

Brahms's father died in 1872. After a short holiday, Brahms accepted the post of artistic director of the Gesellschaft der Musikfreunde (Friends of Music) in Vienna. Masterpieces continued to pour from his pen. He composed, went on concert tours chiefly to improve his own music, and took long holidays. He now had plenty of money and could do as he pleased. He resigned as conductor of the Gesellschaft der Musikfreunde in 1875, for even those duties had become a burden to him. That summer he worked on his *Symphony No. 1* and sketched the *Symphony No. 2*.

In 1880 the University of Breslau offered Brahms a doctor's degree, in appreciation of which he wrote two orchestral concert pieces. By this time he had discovered Italy, and for the rest of his life he vacationed there frequently. Vacations for Brahms meant composing, and he produced symphonies (long and complicated compositions for symphony orchestras), piano and violin concertos (music written for one or more instruments), and many other compositions and publications.

Much of the credit for the worldwide acceptance of Brahms's orchestral works was due to the activities of their great interpreter, Hans von Bülow, who had transferred his loyalty from the Liszt-Wagner camp to Brahms. Bülow exerted tremendous energy in seeing that Brahms's compositions received properly executed performances.

When he was about sixty years old, Brahms began to age rapidly, and his production decreased sharply. He often spoke of having arrived at the end of his creative activity. Nonetheless, the works of this last period are awesome in their magnificence and concentration, and the last of his published

works, the *Vier ernste Gesänge* (Four Serious Songs), are among the high points of his career. Brahms's health took a turn for the worse after he heard the news of the death of Clara Schumann in 1896. On April 3, 1897, he died of cancer of the liver. He was buried next to Beethoven and Franz Schubert (1797–1828) and was honored by Vienna and the entire musical world.

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## LOUIS BRaille

**Born:** January 4, 1809

Coupray, France

**Died:** January 6, 1852

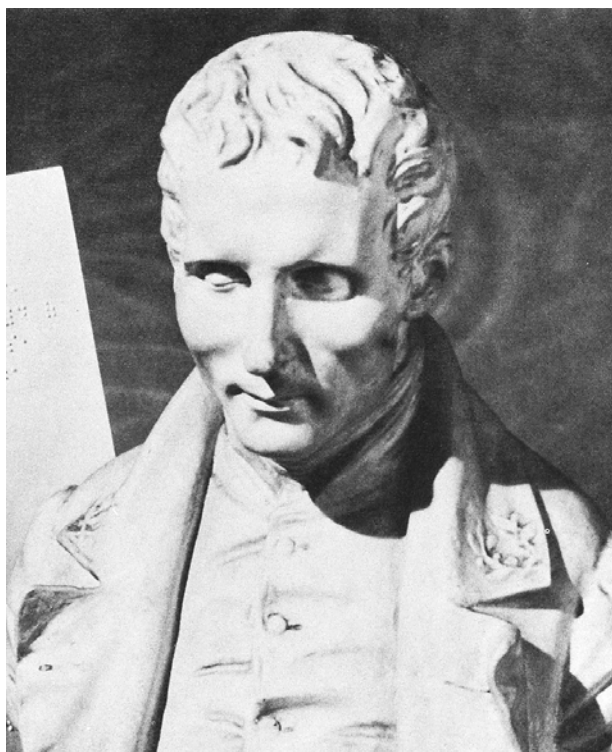
Paris, France

*French teacher and advocate for the blind*

Louis Braille designed the coding system, based on patterns of raised dots, by which the blind can read through touch.

### Childhood accident

Louis Braille was born in Coupray, France, on January 4, 1809, the only child of Louis and Constance Braille. His father made



*Louis Braille.*

leather saddles and harnesses for farmers in the area. At the age of three, while playing in his father's shop, young Louis was struck in the eye by an awl (a pointed tool for piercing holes in leather or wood). Within weeks of the accident, an eye infection took away his sight completely. Few opportunities existed for the blind at the time, so his father urged him to attend school with sighted children. He was an excellent student, mostly because of his exceptional memory.

In 1819 Braille received a scholarship to the Institut National des Jeunes Aveugles (National Institute of Blind Youth), founded

by Valentin Haüy (1745–1822). He continued to excel in his studies and also began playing the piano and organ. The same year Braille entered the school, Captain Charles Barbier invented sonography, or night writing, a system of embossed symbols (standing out from the surface) used by soldiers to communicate silently at night on the battlefield. The fifteen-year-old Braille was inspired by a lecture Barbier gave at the Institute a few years later. Braille adapted Barbier's system to replace the awkward embossed-word books in the Institute's library, which were the only thing he and his classmates could use up to that point.

## *Useful new system*

Braille began experimenting with cut shapes from leather as well as nails and tacks hammered into boards. He finally settled on a fingertip-sized six-dot code, based on the twenty-six letters of the alphabet, which could be recognized with a single contact of one finger. By changing the number and placement of dots, he coded letters, punctuation, numbers, familiar words, scientific symbols, mathematical and musical notation, and capitalization. With the right hand the reader touched individual dots, and with the left hand he or she moved on toward the next line, grasping the text as smoothly and rapidly as sighted readers. Using the Braille system, students were also able to take notes and write themes by punching dots into paper with a pointed instrument that was lined up with a metal guide.

At the age of twenty, Braille published a written account describing the use of his coded system. In 1837 he issued a second publication featuring an expanded system of coding text. King Louis Philippe (1773–1850)

praised the system publicly after a demonstration at the Paris Exposition of Industry in 1834, and Braille's fellow students loved it. But sighted instructors and school board members worried that growing numbers of well-educated blind individuals might take away their jobs. They decided to stick with the embossed-letter system.

### **Recognition after death**

Braille became somewhat well known as a musician, composer, and teacher, but he grew seriously ill with incurable tuberculosis (a lung infection) in 1835 and was forced to resign his teaching post. Shortly before his death, a former student of his, a blind musician, gave a performance in Paris, France. She made a point of letting the audience know that she had learned everything she knew using the forgotten system developed by the now-dying Braille. This created renewed interest in and a revival of the Braille system, although it was not fully accepted until 1854, two years after the inventor's death. The system underwent alteration from time to time. The version employed today was first used in the United States in 1860 at the Missouri School for the Blind.

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## LOUIS BRANDEIS

**Born:** November 13, 1856

**Louisville, Kentucky**

**Died:** October 5, 1941

**Washington, D.C.**

*American Supreme Court justice*

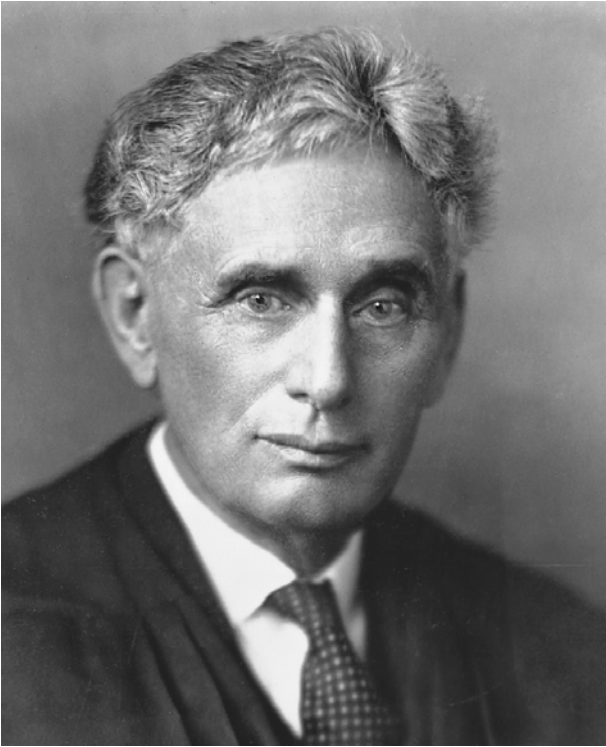
Louis Brandeis was a lawyer who dedicated his life to public service, earning the nickname the "people's attorney." As an associate justice of the U.S. Supreme Court, he tried to balance the developing powers of modern government and society with the defending of individual freedoms.

### **Early life and education**

Louis Dembitz Brandeis was born on November 13, 1856, in Louisville, Kentucky, to Adolph and Fredericka Dembitz Brandeis. His parents were Bohemian Jews who had come to America after the revolutionary movement of 1848 to create an independent Bohemia failed and was crushed by Austria. The Brandeis family was educated, and they believed in strengthening the processes of democracy in order to protect the common man's dignity and right to self-development.

Brandeis lived and studied in Europe for three years after graduating from Louisville public schools at the age of fifteen. In 1875, at the age of eighteen, Brandeis entered Harvard Law School without a college degree, achieving one of the most outstanding records in the school's history. At the same time he tutored fellow students in order to earn money, which was necessary because of





Louis Brandeis.

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business losses suffered by his father. Although Brandeis was not the required age of twenty-one, the Harvard Corporation passed a special resolution granting him a bachelor of law degree in 1877. After another year of legal study at Harvard, he was allowed to practice law.

#### ***Years of public service***

In 1879 Brandeis began a partnership with his classmate Samuel D. Warren. Together they wrote one of the most famous law articles in history, "The Right to Privacy," published in the December 1890 *Harvard Law Review*. In it Brandeis stated the view he

later repeated in the Supreme Court case of *Olmstead v. United States* (1928): he argued that the makers of the Constitution, as evidence of their effort to protect Americans, intended for people to have "the right to be let alone ... the right most valued by civilized men." During this stage of his career, Brandeis spent much time helping the Harvard Law School. Though he declined an offer to become an assistant professor, in 1886 he helped found the Harvard Law School Association, a group of alumni (graduates of the school), and he served for many years as its secretary.

By 1890 Brandeis was earning good money as a lawyer and was able to serve, without pay, in support of various public causes. When a fight arose, for example, over preservation of the Boston subway system, he helped save it. He also helped lead the opposition to the New Haven Railroad's attempt to remain the sole provider of transportation in New England. He worked to change Massachusetts' liquor laws in an attempt to prevent liquor dealers from bribing lawmakers rather than complying with the laws. The Massachusetts State Legislature's adoption of a savings-bank life insurance system was the result of his investigation of the problems of existing insurance programs.

Brandeis also took part in the effort to bring legal protections to industrial workers, and as part of this effort he contributed a major idea to the Supreme Court legal process. In 1908, while defending an Oregon law that established fair wages and hours for women laborers, Brandeis introduced what came to be known as the "Brandeis brief." In the brief he took into consideration the various factors that had led to the passing of the

law. Many lawyers followed the Brandeis brief. In their arguments they presented scientific evidence and expert opinion on the social problems of the day that were reflected in court cases.

### ***Appointment to the Supreme Court***

President Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) offered Brandeis a position in his Cabinet in 1913, but the Boston lawyer preferred to remain simply a counselor to the president. Brandeis continued his investigations into the growing concentration of wealth in large corporations and such effects on democracy. In 1914 he published *Other People's Money, and How the Bankers Use It*, in which he set down his views in opposition to corporate growth.

Wilson's nomination of Brandeis to the Supreme Court on January 28, 1916, started a dirty political fight. Six former presidents of the American Bar Association and former president of the United States William Howard Taft (1857–1930) criticized Brandeis for his “radical” (extreme) political views. Some anti-Semitism (prejudice against Jewish people) was involved, as Brandeis was the first Jew ever nominated for America's highest court. Finally, however, the fight was won in the Senate, and Brandeis took his seat on June 5, 1916, where he served with distinction until his retirement on February 13, 1939.

Brandeis often joined his fellow justice Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr. (1841–1935) in disagreeing with the Court's willingness to make judgments about fiscal (economic) and social policy that opposed those of individual states. Also with Holmes Brandeis bravely defended civil liberties throughout this era. When he did approve of wide use of state

powers, it was only in the interest of furthering individual self-fulfilment. He also rejected the ability of states to infringe upon (take away from) a citizen's liberty. Two examples are the Olmstead case, which involved wire-tapping, and *Whitney v. California*, in which Brandeis opposed a California law prohibiting free speech.

### ***Personal interests***

Brandeis married Alice Goldmark in 1891, and they had two daughters. Part of his personal life was his commitment to fellow Jews. He became a leading supporter of the movement to develop an independent Jewish nation in Palestine. Another of Brandeis's great interests was the building up of strong regional schools as a means of strengthening local areas against the threat of national control of education. To this end, beginning in 1924, he helped plan and develop the law school and general library of the University of Louisville.

Brandeis died on October 5, 1941. His commitments to justice, education, and Judaism were honored several years later in the founding of Brandeis University in Waltham, Massachusetts.

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## MARLON BRANDO

**Born:** April 3, 1924

**Omaha, Nebraska**

*American actor*

American actor Marlon Brando has fascinated the public with his intense onscreen presence. His film career began in the 1950s and has included powerful roles in such classic films as *On the Waterfront*, *A Streetcar Named Desire*, and *The Godfather*.

### **Early life**

Marlon Brando was born in Omaha, Nebraska, on April 3, 1924. When he was six years old his family moved to Illinois. His father was a salesman and his mother acted in amateur plays. Brando did not have a happy family life. He frequently argued with his father. He also did poorly in school. Sports and dramatics were the only things that interested him. He failed all other subjects.

In an effort to control Brando and give him some discipline, his father sent him to a military school. Brando was seventeen years old at the time. He stayed there for almost three years, but he refused to respect authority and caused so much trouble that he was expelled in his senior year. Because of his behavior, Brando never graduated from high school. He has said that not having a high school education and diploma has always been a source of embarrassment for him.

### **The young actor**

Brando returned to his family and ended up taking a job digging ditches. Finally his

father offered to finance his education. Brando moved to New York, where one of his sisters was trying to become an actress. He began to study with the famous acting coach Stella Adler at the Actors' Studio, a very important acting school. While at the Actors' Studio, Brando learned the "method approach." In method acting actors are taught to draw on their own personal emotions and experiences as a way to portray their characters. Older acting systems relied heavily on teaching actors physical gestures as the way to express themselves.

Brando made his Broadway debut in *I Remember Mama* in 1944. The New York theater critics voted him Broadway's Most Promising Actor for his performance in 1946. In 1947 he played his greatest stage role, Stanley Kowalski in Tennessee Williams's (1911–1983) drama *A Streetcar Named Desire*.

### **Brando goes to Hollywood**

Before James Dean (1931–1955), Marlon Brando popularized the jeans-and-T-shirt look, as a movie idol during the early 1950s. Hollywood was impressed with Brando, and in 1950 he made his motion picture debut as a severely injured war veteran in *The Men*. He went on to play Stanley Kowalski in the 1951 film version of *A Streetcar Named Desire*. The movie was both a popular and a critical success.

Brando played a variety of different characters over the next several years. In his next movie, *Viva Zapata!* (1952), he played Emiliano Zapata, who rose from being a peasant (a poor farmer) to becoming the president of Mexico. He was Marc Antony in the film version of William Shakespeare's (1564–1616) *Julius Caesar* (1953). He played a motorcycle-

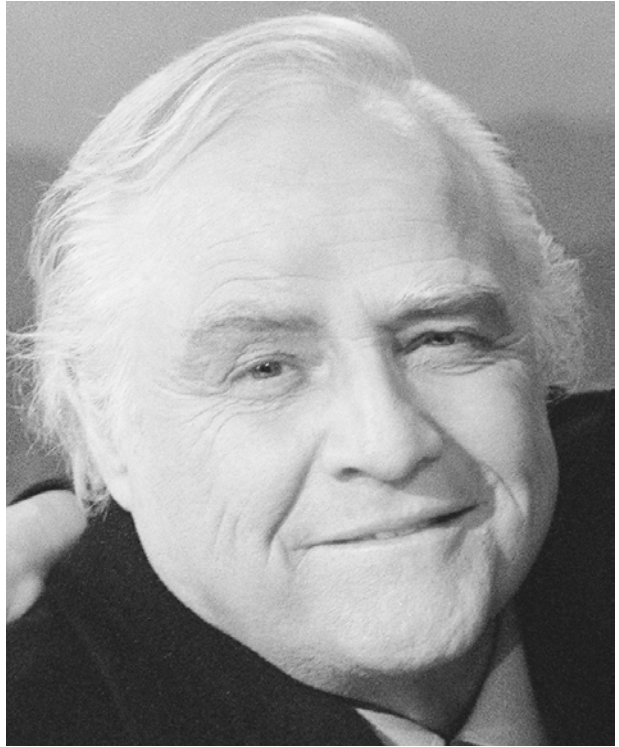
gang leader in *The Wild One* (1954), portrayed Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) in *Désirée* (1954), and sang and danced as Sky Masterson in the musical comedy *Guys and Dolls* (1955). Brando won his first Academy Award in 1954 for his role in *On the Waterfront*, a hard-hitting look at New York City labor unions (a workers' group organized to help workers receive fair wages).

### ***A period of decline***

From 1955 to 1958 people in the movie industry always voted Brando as one of the top ten film attractions in the nation. During the 1960s, however, his career had more downs than ups. In 1962 Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer (MGM) studios decided to remake *Mutiny on the Bounty*, which had originally been filmed in 1935. The movie was a disaster at the box office. It failed to earn even half of its enormous budget (the money it cost to make it). Brando's excessive self-indulgence (spoiled behavior) reached its height during the filming of this movie. He was criticized for his tantrums (fits of bad temper) on the set and for trying to alter the script. Off the set he ate too much and would not associate with the cast and crew. For the rest of the 1960s Brando acted in several movies, but none of them was considered to be of very high quality.

### ***Second rise***

Brando's career was reborn in 1972 with his portrayal of Mafia (a secret, criminal organization) leader Don Corleone in *The Godfather*. He won his second Oscar for that role, but he refused to accept it because of how he felt Hollywood showed Native Americans in its movies. Brando did not appear at



Marlon Brando.

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the Academy Awards ceremony to personally deny the trophy. Instead, he had a Native American Apache woman named Sacheen Littlefeather read his protest. In 1994 Brando changed his mind and tried to get the gold Oscar statuette, but his request was denied.

### ***Life after the Oscar***

Brando continued to work in many films after *The Godfather*, both as a star and in smaller roles in dramas and comedies. Critics have said that both the movies themselves as well as Brando's performances have been of very uneven quality. Young people

who have not seen Brando's amazing efforts in his early films will not find the same genius in his later movies. The small roles he has played do not demand the acting range for which he had once achieved so much praise.

### *A life of turmoil*

The unhappy family life Brando had as a child has been mirrored in his own family life as an adult. He has had many failed marriages and has experienced personal tragedy from the actions of two of his children. A son served time in prison for manslaughter and a daughter committed suicide.

Brando's years of self-indulgence are visible. He overate until he weighed well over three hundred pounds in the mid-1990s. However, to judge Brando by his appearance today and dismiss his work because of his later, less significant acting jobs, would be a mistake. The range of the roles he played is a testament to his ability to explore many aspects of the human psyche (mind). Brando seems perfectly content knowing his best work is behind him. He still remains an influence for actors today, and has won popular acclaim and critical consensus as one of the greatest cinema actors of the late twentieth century.

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## LEONID BREZHNEV

**Born:** December 12, 1906

**Kamenskoe, Ukraine, Russia**

**Died:** November 10, 1982

**Moscow, Russia**

*Russian political leader and general secretary*

Leonid Brezhnev held a number of important government posts in the former Soviet Union, and was the best known of a three-man committee that held power there from 1964 until his death in 1982. He played a large role in improving relations between the Soviet Union and the United States in the 1970s.

### *Early life and education*

Leonid Ilich Brezhnev was born on December 12, 1906, in Kamenskoye (now Dneprodzerzhinsk), an industrial town in the Ukraine. He was one of three children of Ilya Yakovlevich Brezhnev and Natalya Denisovna. His father worked in a steel mill, as had members of several previous generations of the family. Brezhnev's childhood was far from ideal. During his youth a civil war raged in the Ukraine, the Russian Revolution occurred in 1917, and World War I (1914–18) was fought. Brezhnev was forced to leave school at the age of fifteen to go to work. He continued as a part-time student of land surveying at a trade school and graduated at the age of twenty-one.

In the years after his graduation, Brezhnev held a number of minor government posts. He also joined the Communist Party, whose members believed in a system in

which there was no private property, and goods were owned and shared by all people. Under Soviet leader Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), peasant farmers were ordered to sell their extra grain to the state rather than keeping it for themselves. Brezhnev was one of many party members who beat and threatened the peasants to get them to cooperate. Eventually Brezhnev enrolled in the Kamenskoe Metallurgical Institute, graduating in 1935 as an engineer. He left the field of engineering after a short time, however, in favor of returning to government and party work.

### *Moving up in the party*

By the beginning of World War II (1939–45) Brezhnev was an important party leader in his native region. After the outbreak of the war, he served in the branch of the Soviet Red Army responsible for setting up Stalin's "Russification" policy (under which, for example, children were forced to study Russian subjects in school, and newspapers were ordered to be printed in Russian only). He earned many promotions and was given more responsibilities, eventually achieving the rank of major general. When he left the army in 1946, he continued to move steadily ahead as a party official. He gained national prominence in 1950, with his election as first secretary of the Central Committee of the Moldavian S.S.R., one of the republics that made up the Soviet Union. Two years later he left Moldavia for Moscow, Russia, to serve under Stalin in the powerful Secretariat (official organization) of the Central Committee of the Communist Party.

The progress of Brezhnev's career was briefly interrupted by Stalin's death in 1953.



*Leonid Brezhnev.*

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Brezhnev was removed from the Secretariat and assigned to lesser posts, first in the Ministry of Defense and later in the Central Committee of the Kazakh republic. But because he proved to be such a successful administrator, he was recalled to Moscow in 1956 to serve again in the Secretariat. He worked closely with Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971), the new head of the Secretariat and the most powerful man in the Soviet Union. In 1960, with the support of Khrushchev, Brezhnev was chosen chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet. This post brought Brezhnev great prestige but not great power.

**National leadership**

After three years Brezhnev returned to the Secretariat, where he allied himself with other leaders who were unhappy with Khrushchev's record. In 1964 this group succeeded in removing Khrushchev from power, after which Brezhnev took over the most important of Khrushchev's former positions, that of first secretary of the party's Central Committee. Brezhnev became seen as the leader of the Soviet Union. In 1966 his title was changed from first secretary to general secretary, the title under which Stalin had served. But Brezhnev was not as powerful as either Stalin or Khrushchev had been. Instead, according to the arrangement that had followed Khrushchev's removal, he became the first among equals and shared power with two others, the chairman of the Council of Ministers and the chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet.

During the 1970s Brezhnev led the Soviet Union in a number of military actions, including the invasion of Czechoslovakia (now the Czech Republic) in 1968 and warfare in the People's Republic of China in 1969. In order to remain popular with its Eastern European group of republics, which were the strongest supporters of Communism, the Soviet Union turned to hostile enforcement of its political system. Perhaps the harshest example was the Soviet attack launched on Afghanistan in 1979, which continued after Brezhnev's death. In addition, the Soviet economy (the system of production, distribution, and use of goods and services), which had flourished at first, had stopped growing by the mid-1970s.

Although the end of the Brezhnev years saw an increase in tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union, the two world powers still developed respect for each other. During the years President Richard Nixon (1913–1994) was in office (1969–74), the two leaders of the United States and the Soviet Union often visited each other. They improved relations enough to allow the creation of a joint United States-Soviet space program in 1975, a large purchase of American wheat by the Soviets, and other cooperative efforts.

As Brezhnev's health declined, so did Soviet power and unity. This was shown by an increasing amount of criticism from people within the country, such as Andrei Sakharov (1921–1989), a scientist who was imprisoned for speaking out in favor of human rights and against nuclear weapons. Although countries such as Poland, which nearly broke free of Soviet control in 1981, were still no match for the power of Soviet armies, their growing unhappiness eventually led to the break up of the Communist Soviet Union in later years. After several years of serious health problems, Brezhnev died in Moscow on November 10, 1982, leaving the Soviet Union without strong leadership until the arrival of Mikhail Gorbachev (1931–) in 1985.

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## CHARLOTTE BRONTË

**Born:** April 21, 1816

**Thornton, Yorkshire, England**

**Died:** March 31, 1855

**Haworth, Yorkshire, England**

*English novelist*

Charlotte Brontë was one of three English sisters who had books published in the mid-1800s. Her writing described, with a dramatic force that was entirely new to English fiction, the conflict between love and independence and the struggle of the individual to maintain his or her self-esteem.

### Early life

Charlotte Brontë was born in Thornton in Yorkshire, England, on April 21, 1816, the third of Patrick Brontë and Maria Branwell's six children. Her father was an Anglican minister who moved the family to Haworth, also in Yorkshire, in 1820 after finding work at a church there. Except for a brief and unhappy period when she attended a religious school—later described in the opening chapters of *Jane Eyre*—most of Charlotte's early education was provided at home by her father. After the early death of her mother, followed by the passing of her two older sisters, Brontë, now nine years old, lived in isolation with her father, aunt, sisters Anne and Emily, and brother Patrick Branwell.

With their father not communicating much with them, and having no real contact with the outside world, the children spent their time reading and creating their own imaginary worlds. They recorded the events

occurring in these imaginary worlds in miniature writing on tiny sheets of paper. Anne and Emily made up a kingdom called Gondal, while Charlotte and Patrick created the realm of Angria, which was ruled by the Duke of Zamorna. Zamorna's romantic conquests make up the greater part of Charlotte's contributions. He was a character who ruled by strength of will and feeling and easily conquered women—they recognized the evil in him but could not fight their attraction to him.

The conflict between this dream world and her everyday life caused Brontë great suffering. Although her life was outwardly calm, she lived out the struggles of her made-up characters in her head. At age fifteen she began to work as a schoolteacher. She and both of her sisters later worked watching over the children of wealthy families. While attending a language school in Brussels, Belgium, in 1843 and 1844, she seems to have fallen in love with a married professor at the school, but she never fully admitted the fact to herself.

### Books published

After returning to Haworth in 1844, Charlotte Brontë became depressed. She was lonely and felt that she lacked the ability to do any creative work. She discovered that both of her sisters had been writing poetry, as she had. They decided to each write a novel and offer all of them together to publishers. Her sisters' novels were accepted for publication, but Charlotte's *The Professor*, based upon her Brussels experience, was rejected. (It was not published until after her death.) However, the publisher offered her friendly criticism and encouraged her to try again.

Charlotte Brontë's second novel, *Jane Eyre*, was published in 1847. It became the most successful book of the year. She hid at first





Charlotte Brontë.

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behind the pseudonym (pen, or assumed, writing name) Currer Bell, but later she revealed that she was the author of the book. Of all Brontë's novels, *Jane Eyre* most clearly shows the traces of her earlier stories about the imaginary Angria in the character of Rochester, with his mysterious ways and shady past. However, the governess, Jane, who loves him, does not surrender to Rochester. Instead she struggles to maintain her dignity and a balance between the opposing forces of passion and her religious beliefs.

During 1848 and 1849, within eight months of each other, Brontë's remaining two sisters and brother died. Despite her grief she

managed to finish a new novel, *Shirley* (1849). It was set in her native Yorkshire during the Luddite industrial riots of 1812, when textile workers whose jobs had been taken over by machines banded together to destroy the machines. *Shirley* used social issues as a ground for a study of the bold and active heroine and a friend who represents someone with more traditional feminine qualities. In her last completed novel, *Villette* (1853), Brontë again turned to the Brussels affair, treating it now more directly.

Despite her success as a writer, Charlotte Brontë continued to live a quiet life at home in Yorkshire. In 1854 she married Arthur Nicholls, a man who had once worked as an assistant to her father, but she died within a year of their marriage on March 31, 1855.

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Moglen, Helene. *Charlotte Brontë: The Self Conceived*. New York: Norton, 1976.

## EMILY BRONTË

**Born:** August 20, 1818

Thornton, Yorkshire, England

**Died:** December 19, 1848

Haworth, Yorkshire, England

*English novelist*

Emily Brontë was one of three English sisters who had books published in the mid-1800s. Her only major work, *Wuthering Heights*, is considered one of the greatest novels in the history of literature.

### *Early years and imaginary worlds*

Emily Brontë was born in Thornton in Yorkshire, England, on August 20, 1818, the daughter of Patrick and Maria Branwell Brontë. Her father had been a schoolteacher and tutor before becoming an Anglican minister. She grew up in Haworth in the bleak West Riding area of Yorkshire. Except for an unhappy year at a religious school (described by her sister Charlotte as the Lowood Institution in *Jane Eyre*), Emily's education was provided at home by her father, who let his children read freely and treated them as intellectual equals. The early death of their mother and two older sisters drew the remaining children close together.

Living in an isolated village, separated socially and intellectually from the local people, the Brontë sisters (Charlotte, Emily, and Anne) and their brother Patrick Branwell spent the majority of their time in made-up worlds. They described these imaginary worlds in poems and tales and in "magazines" written in miniature script on tiny pieces of paper. As the children grew older, their personalities changed. Emily and Anne created the realm of Gondal. Located somewhere in the north, it was, like West Riding, a land of wild moors (open, grassy areas unsuitable for farming). Unlike Charlotte and Patrick's dream world called Angria, Gondal's laws reflected those of the real world. But this did not mean that Emily found it any easier than her sister to live



Emily Brontë.

happily as a governess or schoolteacher, which seemed to be their only options for the future.

When, at the age of seventeen, Emily attempted formal schooling for the second time, she suffered a breakdown after three months. She began a teaching position the following year but had to give that up as well. In 1842 she accompanied her sister Charlotte to Brussels, Belgium, for a year to study languages. During this time she impressed the professor as having a finer, more powerful mind than her sister. In October of that year, however, the death of an aunt brought the sisters back home to Haworth. Emily would spend the rest of her life there.

### *Back home and writing*

Emily Brontë did not mind the isolation of Haworth, as being outdoors in the moors gave her a feeling of freedom. Here she experienced the world in terms of forces of nature that cannot be considered good or evil. She believed in the presence of supernatural powers (such as ghosts or spirits) and began to express her feelings in poems such as “To Imagination,” “The Prisoner,” “The Visionary,” “The Old Stoic,” and “No Coward Soul.”

After Emily Brontë and her sisters discovered that they had all been writing poetry, the three of them put together a collection of poems written under pseudonyms (fake names) that was published in 1846. It did not attract any attention. The sisters then decided to each write a novel and submit all three jointly to publishers. Emily’s *Wuthering Heights* was published in 1847. Set in the moors, it is a story of love and revenge involving a character named Heathcliff, who was abandoned by his parents as an infant, and his effect on two neighboring families. Critical reaction was negative, at least partly due to the many errors in the first printing. Later *Wuthering Heights* came to be considered one of the great novels of all time.

Emily Brontë died of tuberculosis at Haworth on December 19, 1848. Refusing all medical attention, she struggled to perform her household tasks until the end.

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## GWENDOLYN BROOKS

**Born:** June 7, 1917

**Topeka, Kansas**

**Died:** December 3, 2000

**Chicago, Illinois**

*African American poet*

Gwendolyn Brooks was the first African American to receive a Pulitzer Prize for Poetry and is best known for her poetic descriptions of African American city life.

### *Early life*

Gwendolyn Brooks was born on June 7, 1917, in Topeka, Kansas, the eldest child of Keziah (Wims) Brooks, a schoolteacher, and David Anderson Brooks, a janitor, who, because he lacked the funds to finish school, did not achieve his dream of becoming a doctor. Brooks grew up in Chicago, Illinois. Her parents often read to her and encouraged her to do well in school, but she was a shy girl. According to George Kent, she was “spurned by members of her own race because she lacked social or athletic abilities, a light skin, and good grade hair.”

Brooks was deeply hurt by this rejection and spent most of her childhood writing. She became known to her family and friends as “the female Paul Lawrence Dunbar” (1872–1906; a famous African American poet). She received compliments on her poems and encouragement from James Weldon Johnson (1871–1938) and Langston Hughes (1902–1967), well-known writers with whom she began correspondence and whose readings she

attended in Chicago. By the age of sixteen she had written over seventy-five poems.

### **Early career**

After graduating from Wilson Junior College in 1936, Brooks worked as director of publicity for a youth organization of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. She participated in poetry readings and workshops at Chicago's South Side Community Art Center, producing verse that would appear in her first published volume, *A Street in Bronzeville*, in 1945. In 1939 she married Henry L. Blakeley, another young writer, and together they would raise two children. Brooks continued to write poetry when the children were asleep or later while they were in school. A second collection titled *Annie Allen* was released in 1949. In 1950 Brooks was awarded a Pulitzer Prize for Poetry, becoming the first African American to be granted this honor. She also wrote a novel, *Maud Martha*, in 1953. Other poetry collections included *The Bean Eaters* (1960) and *Selected Poems* (1962).

Brooks's work from this period contains descriptions mostly of African American people involved in their day-to-day city activities. In them she used a strict technical form, lofty word choice, and complicated word play. Critics labeled her early work as intellectual and scholarly. Although these poems speak out against the oppression (cruel exercise of power against a particular group) of blacks and women, some of them require close reading to uncover their true meanings. In many of these works she criticized the prejudice that African American people have toward one another by calling attention to their favored treatment of light-skinned



Gwendolyn Brooks.

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African American people. In *Annie Allen* and *Maud Martha* she examines the traditional roles of mother and father, and husband and wife, concluding that they can be damaging to those who try to live up to artificial ideals. But these messages tend to be hidden somewhat by her complicated language.

### **New tone**

In 1967 Brooks's work achieved a new tone and vision. She changed to a more simple writing style so that her themes could come across more strongly. This change can be traced to her growing political awareness, previously hinted at in *Selected Poems*, after

witnessing the strong spirit of several young African American authors at the Second Black Writers' Conference held at Fisk University. Among such works are *In the Mecca* (1968), *Riot* (1969), *Aloneness* (1971), *Family Pictures* (1971), the autobiographical (description of her own life) *Report from Part One* (1972), *The Tiger Who Wore White Gloves: Or, What You Are You Are* (1974), *Beckonings* (1975), and *Primer for Blacks* (1980). These works are much more direct and are designed to increase the reader's level of racial awareness. No longer using traditional poetic forms, Brooks now favored free verse. She also increased the use of her vernacular (a language spoken by people of a particular group or from a certain area) to make her works more understandable for African Americans, not just for university audiences and the editors of poetry magazines.

During the 1970s Brooks taught poetry at numerous institutions for higher learning, including Northeastern Illinois State College (now Northeastern Illinois University), the University of Wisconsin at Madison, and the City College of the City University of New York. She continued to write. Yet, while her concern for African Americans and hope for racial harmony was the main subject of her verse in the early 1970s, the energy and positive feeling of *Riot* and *Family Pictures* was replaced in the late 1970s with a sense of disappointment resulting from the disagreements and lack of unity among members of the civil rights and "Black Power" movements. This mood was reflected in *Beckonings* (1975) and *To Disembark* (1980), where she urged African Americans to break free from the controls of white American society and seemed to favor violence and disorder as acceptable ways of achieving that freedom.

### Later years

Brooks spent her time encouraging others to write by sponsoring writers' workshops in Chicago and poetry contests at prisons. In short, she took poetry to her people, continuing to test its worth by reading and speaking in taverns, lounges, and other public places as well as in academic circles. In 1985 she was named as the poetry consultant (one who gives advice) for the Library of Congress. In 1990 her works were guaranteed a permanent home when Chicago State University established the Gwendolyn Brooks Center on its campus. In later years Brooks continued to write, with *Children Coming Home* and *Blacks* both being published in 1992. She also continued to inspire others to write, focusing on young children by speaking and giving poetry readings at schools around the country.

In 1997, on her eightieth birthday, Gwendolyn Brooks was honored with tributes from Chicago to Washington, D.C. Although she received many words of tribute, perhaps the best description of Brooks's life and career came from her publisher, Haki Madhubuti, when he said, "She is undoubtedly one of the top one hundred writers in the world. She has been a chronicler (record keeper) of black life, specifically black life on the South Side of Chicago. She has become almost a legend in her own time." Gwendolyn Brooks died of cancer at her Chicago home on December 3, 2000.

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## HELEN GURLEY BROWN

**Born:** February 18, 1922

**Green Forest, Arkansas**

*American editor and author*

American author and editor Helen Gurley Brown first achieved fame for her best-selling book *Sex and the Single Girl*. After becoming editor of *Cosmopolitan*, she transformed it into a top-selling magazine for young women in more than twenty-seven different countries.

### Early years

Helen Gurley Brown was born in Green Forest, Arkansas, on February 18, 1922. The family lived in Little Rock, Arkansas, until her father, Ira M. Gurley, a schoolteacher, was killed in an elevator accident when Helen was ten years old. Her mother, Cleo Gurley, was left to raise their two daughters. (Helen's sister was partially paralyzed from polio, a disease that affects the spine.) "I never liked the looks of the life that was programmed for me—ordinary, hillbilly, and poor," Brown wrote later.

After Brown's father died, the family moved to Los Angeles, California. In high school, Brown set about working harder than anyone else, wrote for school publications,

and wound up finishing at the top of her class. She attended Texas State College for Women from 1939 to 1941 before returning to Los Angeles, where she attended Woodbury Business College. She also took a job at Los Angeles radio station KHJ, answering fan mail for six dollars a week to help support her mother and sister.

### In the workforce

Brown worked at eighteen different secretarial jobs between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five. From 1942 to 1945 she worked at Music Corporation of America, a Beverly Hills talent agency. In later years she would recall how secretaries were required to use the back stairs because the fancy lobby staircase was only for the use of clients and male executives of the company.

A major career move for Brown occurred in 1948, when she became the first woman to hold a copywriter position at Foote, Cone & Belding, a Los Angeles advertising agency. Her ability to write bright, noticeable copy won her two Francis Holmes Advertising Copywriters awards during her years at the firm. She went on to work for Kenyon & Eckhardt, a Hollywood advertising agency, as an account executive and copywriter from 1958 to 1962.

In 1959, at the age of thirty-seven, Helen Gurley married David Brown, then vice president of production at the 20th Century Fox movie studio. In later years Brown co-produced films such as *Jaws*, *Cocoon*, and *The Sting*. The couple had no children. Brown once remarked that one secret of the success of their marriage was that her husband never interrupted her on Saturdays and Sundays when she was working upstairs in her office.



Helen Gurley Brown.

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Brown's first book, *Sex and the Single Girl* (1962), became a national best-seller and changed single women's attitudes toward their own lives. At a time when *Reader's Digest* and *The Ladies Home Journal* still insisted that a "nice" girl had only two choices, "she can marry him or she can say no," Brown openly proclaimed that sex was an important part of a single woman's life. According to Brown, "The single girl is the new glamour girl." She also told her own story, describing herself as a "mouseburger" who, through patience, planning, and never giving up, advanced in her chosen field and then married the man of her dreams.

### Magazine success

In 1965 Brown was hired as editor in chief of a failing general interest magazine called *Cosmopolitan*. She revised the magazine's cover image, creating a carefree, sexy *Cosmo* girl. "A million times a year I defend my covers," Brown admitted. "I like skin, I like pretty. I don't want to photograph the girl next door." The magazine, like its editor, was filled with advice on how to move ahead in a career, meet men, lose weight, and be a good sexual partner. There was no time for the negative. "I wasn't allowed to write critical reviews," movie critic Liz Smith confessed. The new *Cosmopolitan* often created controversy (dispute), especially when it published a nude centerfold of actor Burt Reynolds in 1972. By 1990 *Cosmopolitan* had grown from sales of eight hundred thousand copies per issue in the United States to more than 2.5 million. It was one of the most widely read women's magazines in the world, and became the sixth best-selling newsstand magazine in any category.

Brown's advice changed little over the years, both in the magazine and the books she occasionally published on topics similar to those discussed in the magazine. She still refused to print four-letter words but described sexual acts in great detail. "I am still preoccupied with sex," she confessed. "If you want to enchant a man and eventually marry him, you are good to him, easy with him, adorable to be around." During a *Fortune* magazine interview in October 1996, Brown shared several of her rules for being a good executive. Her guidelines included paying a compliment before criticizing someone, saying "no" to time wasters, doing what you dread first, and working harder than anybody else.

In addition to the Francis Holmes Achievement awards, Brown received several awards for journalism, including a Distinguished Achievement Award from the University of Southern California in 1971; an award for editorial leadership from the American Newspaper Woman's Club of Washington, D.C., in 1972; and the Distinguished Achievement Award in Journalism from Stanford University in 1977. In 1985 she received the New York Women in Communications Matrix award. She has been referred to as a "living landmark" by the New York Landmarks Conservancy, and the Helen Gurley Brown Research professorship was established in her name at Northwestern University's Medill School of Journalism in 1986. She was named to the Publisher's Hall of Fame in 1988.

#### ***Advice continues***

In January 1996, after thirty-two years, Helen Gurley Brown was replaced as editor in chief of *Cosmopolitan* by Bonnie Fuller, founding editor of *Marie Claire* magazine. "She [Fuller] thoroughly understands the *Cosmo* girl, and her success . . . certainly prepared her to succeed to the editorship of *Cosmopolitan*," said Brown. She was given the position of editor in chief of *Cosmopolitan's* international publishing program. In 2000 Brown's eighth book *I'm Wild Again: Snippets from My Life and a Few Brazen Thoughts* was published. Filled with stories, the book revealed information on her face lifts, staying thin, and how to keep a man and succeed in a career.

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## JAMES BROWN

**Born:** May 3, 1933

**Barnwell, South Carolina**

*African American singer*

"Godfather of Soul" James Brown unleashed a string of rhythm-and-blues hits through the 1960s and early 1970s. His influence and work ethic earned him the reputation as "the hardest-working man in show business."

#### ***Difficult childhood***

James Joe Brown Jr. was born on May 3, 1933, in Barnwell, South Carolina, to Joe and Susie Brown. His mother left the family when James was only four years old. His father, looking for work, moved the remaining family to Augusta, Georgia, to live with an aunt, who oversaw a brothel (a house for prostitutes). Growing up, Brown was heavily influenced by jazz and rhythm-and-blues, two musical types dominated by African Americans. Other influences were the circuses and traveling shows with their variety of acts, both singing and dancing.

But Brown's musical dreams were soon drowned out by his tough childhood. He grew up fast, and by his teens Brown had drifted into crime. At sixteen he went to jail for multiple car thefts. Though initially sen-





James Brown.

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tenced to eight to sixteen years of hard labor, he got out in less than four years for good behavior. After unsuccessful attempts at boxing and baseball, he formed a gospel group called the Swanees with his prison pal Johnny Terry.

***“The Hardest-Working Man in Show Business”***

The Swanees shifted toward the popular mid-1950s “doo-wop” style and away from gospel, changing their name to the Famous Flames. Brown sang lead and played drums; their song “Please, Please, Please” was released

as a single in 1956 and sold a million copies. By 1960 the group had become the James Brown Revue and was generating proto-funk dance hits like “(Do the) Mashed Potato.” Deemed the “King of Soul” at the Apollo Theater, New York City’s black music capital, Brown proceeded over the years to burn up the charts with singles like “Papa’s Got a Brand New Bag,” “I Got You (I Feel Good),” “It’s a Man’s Man’s Man’s World,” “Cold Sweat,” “Funky Drummer,” and many others.

Brown’s unique style mixed a handful of influences, but his intensity of punctuating vocal sounds—groans, grunts, wails, and screams—came right out of the southern church. His calls to sax player Maceo Parker to “blow your horn,” and trademark cries of “Good God!” and “Take it to the bridge!” became among the most recognizable catchphrases in popular music. His band—though its members shifted constantly—maintained a reputation as one of the tightest in the business. Starting and stopping on a dime, laying down merciless grooves, it followed Brown’s lead as he worked crowds the world over into a frenzy. Brown adopted a series of extravagant titles over the years, but during this period he was known primarily as “The Hardest-Working Man in Show Business.”

***Activism***

The increasingly militant stance of many African American activists in the late 1960s led Brown—by now among an elite group of influential African Americans—to flirt with the “Black Power” movement. Even so, the singer generally counseled nonviolence and won praise from President Lyndon B. Johnson (1908–1973) when a broadcast of his

words helped head off a race riot. He was also saluted by Vice President Hubert Humphrey (1911–1978) for his proeducation song “Don’t Be a Dropout.” Brown’s music did begin to incorporate more obvious political messages, many of which stated his belief that African Americans needed to take control of their economic destinies.

The year 1970 saw the release of Brown’s powerful single “(Get Up, I Feel Like Being a) Sex Machine,” a relentless funk groove featuring several hot young players, notably Bootsy Collins and his brother Phelps, also known as “Catfish.” Brown soon signed with Polydor Records and took on the nickname the “Godfather of Soul,” after the highly successful movie *The Godfather*. Further refining his hard funk sound, he released hits like “Get on the Good Foot,” “Talking Loud and Saying Nothing,” and “Soul Power.” With the 1970s box-office success of black action films—known within the industry as “blaxploitation” pictures—Brown began writing movie soundtracks, scoring such features as *Slaughter’s Big Rip-Off* and *Black Caesar*.

### ***Taxes, tragedy, and trouble***

James Brown may have been one of the biggest pop stars in the world, but he also found himself in a fair share of trouble. In 1975 the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) claimed that he owed \$4.5 million in taxes from 1969 to 1970, and many of his other investments collapsed. His band quit after a punishing tour of Africa, and most tragically, his son Teddy died in an automobile accident. Brown’s wife later left him, taking their two daughters.

By the late 1970s, the arrival of disco music created career problems for the “God-

father of Soul.” Things improved slightly after Brown appeared as a preacher in the smash 1980 comedy film *The Blues Brothers*, but his big comeback of the 1980s came with the release of “Living in America,” the theme from the film *Rocky IV*, which he performed at the request of movie star Sylvester Stallone (1946–). The single was his first million-selling hit in thirteen years. As a result, Brown signed a new deal with CBS Records; in 1986 he was inducted into the Rock ‘n’ Roll Hall of Fame. “Living in America” earned him a Grammy Award for best R&B performance by a male artist.

### ***Jailed after 1988 chase***

Through it all, Brown had been struggling with substance abuse. In May of 1988 he faced charges of assault, weapons and drug possession, and resisting arrest. In December he made national headlines when he was arrested again after leading police on a two-state car chase and was sentenced to six years in State Park Correctional Facility in Columbia, South Carolina. His confinement became a political issue for his fans, and Brown was ultimately released in early 1991.

Unfortunately, Brown’s troubles were not at an end. In December of 1994, he was charged with misdemeanor domestic violence after a confrontation with his third wife, Adrienne. And on October 31, 1995, Brown was again arrested for spousal abuse. He later blamed the incident on his wife’s addiction to drugs, stating in a press release, “She’ll do anything to get them.” Just over two months later, Adrienne died at the age of forty-seven after undergoing cosmetic surgery.

But things seemed to be getting back on track for Brown. In 1998 he released the album *I'm Back* and in 2000 he was inducted into the Songwriters' Hall of Fame at a New York ceremony. The following year, he married his girlfriend of three years, singer Tammie Rae Hynie.

Brown's ability for survival and the shining legacy of his work managed to overshadow such ugly incidents. "I came from nothing and I made something out of myself," Brown commented in a *New York Times* interview. "I dance and I sing and I make it happen. I've made people feel better. I want people to be happy."

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## JOHN BROWN

**Born:** May 4, 1800

**Torrington, Connecticut**

**Died:** December 2, 1859

**Charles Town, Virginia**

*American abolitionist*

**J**ohn Brown was one of the most famous abolitionists, or opponents of slavery, in history. He traveled widely to gather

support and money for his cause. Many people who helped him were either unaware or did not care that he often used violence to achieve his goals. His attack on Harpers Ferry, Virginia, in 1859, freed no slaves and resulted in his own trial and death.

### ***Declares "eternal war with slavery"***

John Brown was born at Torrington, Connecticut, on May 4, 1800, to Owen Brown and Ruth Mills Brown. His father worked as a tanner, changing animal skins into leather. A religious youth, Brown studied briefly for the ministry but quit to learn the tanner's trade. He married Dianthe Lusk in 1820, and the couple had seven children before her death in 1832. In 1833 he married Mary Ann Day, with whom he had thirteen children in the next twenty-one years. Of Brown's twenty children, twelve survived.

When Brown was twelve years old, he saw an African American boy mistreated; this incident, he said, led him to declare "eternal war with slavery." He felt that slavery could be destroyed only with bloodshed, deciding in 1839 that the South should be invaded and the slaves freed at gunpoint. For the next decade, he attempted a number of business ventures, none successfully. He moved his family ten times, until settling in 1849 on a farm at North Elba, New York.

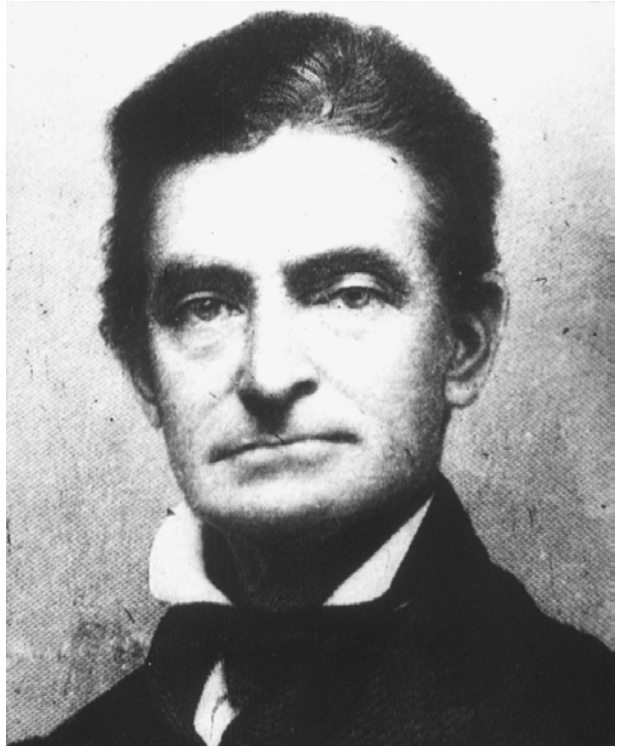
### ***Kansas struggle***

After the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, the territory hung in the balance while supporters and opponents of slavery tried to gain control. According to the Kansas-Nebraska Act, the people living in the territory would decide whether or not slavery would be allowed in Kansas and Nebraska.

Brown traveled through the East, urging an end to slavery in Kansas and gathering money for weapons to help achieve that end. "Without the shedding of blood," he said, there could be "no remission of sin." In other words, he believed that the people who supported slavery and the slave system would not be freed from the guilt of what he saw as a sin until slavery was ended. He thought that the only way to end slavery was through fighting, even if it would result in the death of some people. In September he settled near Osawatomie, Kansas. "I am here," he said, "to promote the killing of slavery." In 1856 he led a raid on a proslavery settlement at Pottawatomie, Kansas, killing five men before escaping. This incident made him nationally known, and while some people criticized him, to others he was a hero.

Brown spent the summer of 1856 in New England collecting money for his fight against slavery. Important public figures, some unaware of the details of his activities, were impressed by his dedication and helped him gather recruits, guns, and money. In August he and his supporters fought with settlers at Osawatomie, and his son Frederick was killed. "I will die fighting for this cause," Brown wrote, "There will be no peace in this land until slavery is done for."

Brown went east in early 1857 with plans to invade the South; he gathered supporters at Tabor, Iowa, for training. He held meetings with eastern abolitionists, and in early 1858 sent his son John Jr. to survey the country around Harpers Ferry, the site of a Federal arsenal (a place where items used by the military, such as equipment and weapons are made or stored). In April he held a meeting of his men in Chatham, Ontario, Canada.



*John Brown.*

*Courtesy of the National Archives and  
Records Administration.*

He explained to them that he planned to invade the South, arm the slaves, and set up a free state under a new constitution. He returned to Kansas using a different name and led a raid into Missouri, killing one man and taking some slaves back to Canada.

Brown was now considered a criminal in the eyes of the state of Missouri and the U.S. government, and both offered rewards for his capture. However, in parts of the North he was seen as a hero, and donations poured in. In early 1859 he toured the East again to raise money, and in July he rented a farm five miles north of Harpers Ferry, where he

recruited twenty-one men for final training. He intended to seize the arsenal, distribute arms to the slaves he thought would support him, and set up a free state for African Americans within the South. However, Harpers Ferry was an isolated mountain town, with few slaves nearby.

### ***Raid on Harpers Ferry***

On the night of October 16, 1859, Brown set out for Harpers Ferry with eighteen men and a wagon full of supplies, leaving three men behind to guard the farm. Brown's party slipped into town and easily captured the armory (a storage place for weapons) watchmen. For some reason, Brown allowed the midnight train to go through; the train's conductor sounded an alarm the next morning.

Shooting broke out early on October 17, 1859, between Brown's men and local residents. Soldiers soon arrived from Charles Town, West Virginia. By nightfall Brown's group was trapped in the armory's engine house; all but five were wounded. That night ninety marines arrived from Washington, D.C., to join the fight against Brown and his men. The next morning the marines stormed the engine house, slashing Brown with their swords. Of Brown's original party, ten died and seven were captured; on the other side the victims included a marine and four other men, one of them a free African American killed by mistake.

Brown was jailed at Charles Town. His trial took place a week later as he lay wounded on a stretcher. "I believe that to have interfered as I have done," he said, "in behalf of His despised poor, I did no wrong, but right. . . . I am ready for my fate." He was

convicted of treason (a crime against the government) against Virginia, conspiracy (plotting) with African Americans, and first-degree murder. The court sentenced Brown to death on November 2. He was to be executed a month later.

### ***Beginning of a legend***

News of Brown's deed shocked the nation. Many praised him, including Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882), who called him "that new saint who will make the gallows like a cross." However, many believed that his crime had been terribly evil. Seventeen of Brown's acquaintances sent letters on his behalf to Governor Wise of Virginia, but Wise ignored them.

Brown was hanged at Charles Town on December 2, 1859, with four of his men, after handing a note to his jailer on his way to the gallows: "I John Brown am now quite certain that the crimes of this guilty land: will never be purged away; but with Blood." The note predicted what was to come in the near future. In fact, the end to slavery in the United States came with the end of the Civil War (1861–65). The Civil War was fought to decide whether or not slavery would be allowed in new territories and in an effort to prevent the southern states from leaving the Union and forming an independent nation. Many people throughout the North gathered to mourn Brown, and church bells tolled at the hour of his execution. He was buried in North Elba, a hero among abolitionists. By the time a song about him, set to the music of an old hymn and named "John Brown's Body," became popular in 1861, he was already a legend.

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## RACHEL FULLER BROWN

**Born:** November 23, 1898

Springfield, Massachusetts

**Died:** January 14, 1980

Albany, New York

*American biochemist*

Rachel Fuller Brown, with her associate Elizabeth Hazen, developed the first effective antibiotic against fungal disease in humans—the most important biomedical breakthrough since the discovery of penicillin two decades earlier. Nystatin earned more than \$13 million in royalties during Brown's lifetime, which she and Hazen dedicated to scientific research.

**Early life**

Rachel Fuller Brown was born in Springfield, Massachusetts, on November 23, 1898, to Annie Fuller and George Hamilton Brown. Her father, a real estate and insurance agent, moved the family to Webster Groves, Mis-

souri, where she attended grammar school. Although Fuller did not take an immediate interest in science, she was fascinated with insects and she collected and studied them. In school, however, Fuller went out of her way to avoid science classes.

In 1912 Brown's father left the family. She and her younger brother returned to Springfield with their mother, who, to support them, worked as a secretary, then as an administrator in several Episcopalian churches. Because of the family's financial situation, it looked as though Brown's education would end after high school. But Brown's hard work and determination impressed Henrietta F. Dexter, a wealthy friend of her grandmother, who decided to fund Brown's tuition to Mount Holyoke College in nearby South Hadley, Massachusetts.

At Mount Holyoke Brown was initially a history major, but she discovered chemistry when fulfilling a science requirement. She decided to double-major in history and chemistry, earning her degree in 1920. She later went to the University of Chicago to complete her master's degree in organic chemistry. For three years she taught chemistry and physics at the Francis Shimer School near Chicago. With her savings she returned to the university to complete her doctorate degree in organic chemistry, with a minor in bacteriology. She submitted her thesis (a research project required for graduation) in 1926, but there was a delay in arranging her oral examinations, which she needed to complete in order to get her degree. As her funds ran low, Brown was forced to leave Chicago before her exams. She took a job as an assistant chemist at the Division of Laboratories and Research of the



Rachel Fuller Brown.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

New York State Department of Health in Albany, New York. The department was famous for its identifications of several human disease-causing agents. Seven years later, when she returned to Chicago for a scientific meeting, Brown arranged to take her oral examinations and was finally awarded her degree.

### *Discovers fungal antibiotic*

Brown's early work at the Department of Health focused on identifying the types of bacteria that caused pneumonia, a disease that causes inflammation of the lungs. Brown helped to develop a pneumonia vaccine (an agent used to fight the disease) still in use

today. In 1948 she embarked on the project with her associate Elizabeth Hazen, a leading authority on fungus, that would bring them their greatest respect from her peers: the discovery of an antibiotic to fight fungal infections. Penicillin, a groundbreaking antibiotic used to fight a variety of illnesses, had been discovered in 1928, and in the following years antibiotics were increasingly used to fight bacterial illnesses. One side effect, however, was the rapid growth of fungus that could lead to sore mouths or upset stomachs. Other fungal diseases without cures included infections attacking the central nervous system, athlete's foot (a foot fungus), and ringworm (a contagious skin disease).

Microorganisms (animals or plants of microscopic size) called actinomycetes that lived in soil were known to produce antibiotics. Although some killed fungus, they also proved fatal to test mice. Hazen ultimately narrowed the search down to a microorganism taken from soil near a barn on a friend's dairy farm in Virginia, later named *streptomyces norsei*. Brown's chemical analyses revealed that the microorganism produced two antifungal substances, one of which proved too toxic (deadly) with test animals to pursue for human medical use. The other, however, seemed to have promise—it was not toxic to test animals, and attacked both a fungus that invaded the lungs and central nervous system and candidiasis, an infection of the mouth, lungs, and vagina.

Brown purified (cleansed) this second antibiotic into small white crystals, and in 1950 Brown and Hazen announced at a meeting of the National Academy of Sciences that they had found a new antifungal agent. They patented (gained official right to the product)

it through the nonprofit Research Corporation, naming it “nystatin” in honor of the New York State Division of Laboratories and Research. The license for the patent was issued to E. R. Squibb and Sons, which developed a safe and effective method of mass production. The product—called Mycostatin—became available in tablet form in 1954 to patients suffering from candidiasis. Nystatin has also proved valuable in agricultural and livestock applications, and has even been used to restore valuable works of art.

### Later career

In 1951 the Department of Health laboratories promoted Brown to associate biochemist. Brown and Hazen continued their research and discovered two additional antibiotics, phalamycin and capacidin. Brown and Hazen were awarded the 1955 Squibb Award in Chemotherapy, the treatment of disease through chemical agents. Brown won the Distinguished Service Award of the New York State Department of Health when she retired in 1968, and the Rhoda Benham Award of the Medical Mycological Society of the Americas in 1972. In 1975 Brown and Hazen became the first women to receive the Chemical Pioneer Award from the American Institute of Chemists. In a statement published in the *Chemist* shortly before she died, Brown hoped for a future of “equal opportunities and accomplishments for all scientists regardless of sex.”

In retirement Brown maintained an active community life, and became the first female vestry (administrator) member of her Episcopalian church. By her death on January 14, 1980, she had paid back Henrietta Dexter, the wealthy woman who had made it possible for

her to attend college. Perhaps even more significant, she used the royalties (money earned) from nystatin to help create new funds for scientific research and scholarships.

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## ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING

**Born:** March 6, 1806

**Durham, England**

**Died:** June 29, 1861

**Florence, Italy**

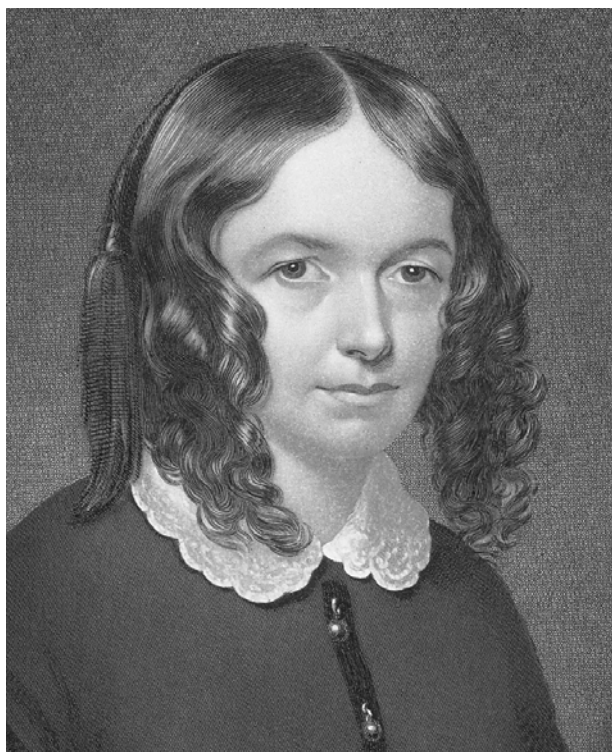
*English poet*

**T**he works of the English poet Elizabeth Barrett Browning enjoyed great popularity during her lifetime. Her most enduring poetry has proved to be *Sonnets from the Portuguese*.

### Life at Hope End

Elizabeth Barrett was the first of twelve children born to Edward and Mary Moulton (the Moultons later took the last name Barrett) on March 6, 1806, in Durham, England.





Elizabeth Barrett Browning.

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Her father was a possessive and demanding man loved by his children even though he rigidly controlled their lives. Elizabeth's childhood was ideal in that the Barretts lived in a lovely setting, a country house called Hope End. She was an excellent rider and enjoyed growing up with her many siblings.

Though she never received any formal education, Elizabeth loved to read. By age eight she had learned to read Homer in the original Greek and had begun to write poetry. In 1819 her father had printed fifty copies of her classic "The Battle of Marathon." In 1826 she published anonymously (without her name), *An Essay on Mind, with Other*

*Poems*, an attempt, as she later noted, to survey history, science, metaphysics (the fundamental nature of reality and being), and poetry from classical Greece to the Victorian day in eighty-eight pages. Elizabeth's fascination with metaphysics and religion became somewhat of an obsession that she described as, "not the deep persuasion of the mild Christian but the wild visions of an enthusiast."

Elizabeth's youthful happiness was not to last. In 1821 she began to suffer from a nervous disorder that caused headaches, weakness, and fainting spells. Some sources trace this lifelong illness to an impatient decision to harness her own horse at age fifteen. Reportedly she fell with the saddle on top of her, damaging her spine. An ongoing prescription for opium (an addictive drug used to relieve pain) was probably a life shortening remedy but a common one for the times. Her mother's health was also unstable. When Elizabeth was twenty her mother became fatally ill. Meanwhile, her father had lost all of his wealth. Rather than move immediately, he refinanced beyond any possibility of repayment so that Mrs. Barrett would never have to leave her beautiful home. After her death, Elizabeth and her family left Hope End forever.

### ***Publications***

Barrett continued her poetic career in 1833 with the anonymous publication of *Prometheus Bound: Translated from the Greek of Aeschylus, and Miscellaneous Poems*. Two years later the Barretts moved to London, England, and in 1838 settled permanently at 50 Wimpole Street. Here Elizabeth started literary friendships that encouraged her writing. During the same year Elizabeth published

her first book under her own name, *The Seraphim and Other Poems*. Though these poems are often filled with heavy-handed sorrow and moral messages, the critics hailed her as a new poet of “extraordinary ability.”

In 1838 Barrett’s illness worsened and she relocated to a sea resort for her health. Her favorite brother Edward stayed with her. Two years later Edward drowned after a disagreement with Elizabeth. This shock worsened her poor health. For the next five years she remained in her room and saw no one except her family and a few close friends. In 1844, however, the publication of *Poems* secured her fame. Such poems as “The Dead Pan” and “Lady Geraldine’s Courtship” seem shrill and sentimental to today’s readers, but they were very popular with Victorian readers and won high praise from critics both in England and the United States.

### **Romance and renewed health**

By far the most significant result of *Poems* was the beginning of Barrett’s relationship with the poet Robert Browning (1812–1889). Attracted by her praise of his poetry, Browning wrote to her on January 10, 1845, and thus began England’s most famous literary love affair. Barrett’s illness had led her to feel “completely dead to hope of any kind.” Six years his senior and an invalid, Elizabeth could not believe her good fortune. Her progress out of despair into hope and finally joy can be traced in her letters to Browning and in her *Sonnets from the Portuguese*, written during their courtship and expressing her love for him. The world-famous romance line, “How do I love thee, let me count the ways<sup>1/4</sup>” comes straight from these sonnets. Because Elizabeth’s father had forbidden any of his children

to marry, the couple was secretly married on September 12, 1846. In anger and frustration, Mr. Barrett refused ever to see his daughter again. Fortunately Elizabeth had inherited other money.

The Brownings journeyed south through France to Italy. Casa Guidi in Florence was their home for the rest of Mrs. Browning’s life. There her health was so improved that on March 9, 1849, she gave birth to a son, Robert Wiedeman Barrett Browning. In 1850 Browning issued a revised edition of *Poems* containing the *Sonnets from the Portuguese*, which her husband had urged her to publish. Modern readers usually find these sonnets her best work. But Victorian readers much preferred her *Aurora Leigh*, a long poem in blank verse (unrhymed verse) published in 1856.

### **Social Justice**

The major interest of Browning’s later years was the Italian struggle for unity and independence. (Until 1859 Italy was a part of Austria). Her keen commitment to social justice is evident in both *Casa Guidi Windows* (1851) and *Poems before Congress* (1860). In these she attempted to win sympathy for the Italian cause.

This emphasis on social justice led to her poem, *A Curse For A Nation*, to be published in a Bostonian abolitionist (antislavery) journal. Elizabeth’s 1857 publication of *Aurora Leigh* featured an artist heroine committed to social reform but thwarted by the male domination of the age. Some call it autobiographical. Years later Virginia Woolf (1882–1941) called this heroine, “the true daughter of her age.” Woolf’s praise attracted many modern readers to Elizabeth Barrett Browning’s work. Elizabeth was a primary inspiration for Emily

Dickinson (1830–1886) as well. No nineteenth century female poet was more esteemed than Elizabeth Barrett Browning.

On June 29, 1861, she died quietly in her husband's arms with a "smile on her face."

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## ROBERT BROWNING

**Born:** May 7, 1812

**London, England**

**Died:** December 12, 1889

**Venice, Italy**

*English poet*

**T**he English poet Robert Browning is best known for his dramatic monologues (dramatic readings done by only one character). By vividly portraying a central character against a social background, these poems explore complex human motives in a variety of historical periods.

### **Youth**

Robert Browning was born on May 7, 1812, in Camberwell, London, England. His father, a senior clerk with the Bank of England, provided a comfortable living for his family and passed on a love of art and literature to Robert. His mother, an excellent amateur pianist, gave him a love of music, while her strong and simple religious faith provided him with an lifelong belief in the existence of God. Robert was a bright child creating "masterpieces" of jam and pencil at the age of two and attending day school as "an infant."

Browning went to primary school until he was fourteen, when his parents decided that he should be sent neither to a public nor a private school, but should instead be taught at home by a tutor. His training included riding, fencing, boxing, singing, and dancing along with the basics. The Brownings were a small, close-knit family, and Robert spent much time reading in his father's library of over seven thousand volumes. His father's love of the Greek tragedies prompted drawing room romps with the chairs as cities of Troy. Robert was very attached to all species of animals, hosting a wide variety of pets in his childhood. In 1828 Browning entered the University of London, but he dropped out after just half a year.

### **Early poems and plays**

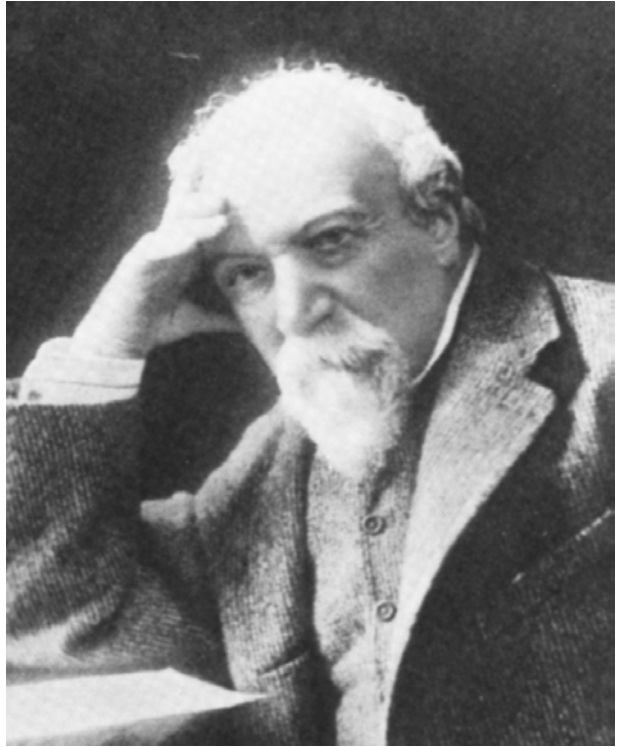
Browning began to write verses at the age of six. His first published work was *Pauline: A Fragment of a Confession*, issued anonymously (without his name) in 1833. The hero of the poem is a young poet, obviously Browning himself, who bares his soul to a patient heroine. When a critic commented that the anonymous author seemed "pos-

sessed with a more intense and morbid [involving thoughts of death] self-consciousness than I ever knew in any sane human being," Browning promised himself to never again reveal his thoughts directly to his readers. Henceforth, he would "only make men and women speak."

This major step in Browning's poetic development was evident in his next long poem, *Paracelsus* (1835), whose hero was a Renaissance (a revival in art and knowledge during the thirteenth to fifteenth centuries that started in Italy and moved to the rest of Europe) alchemist (early chemist). Though Browning later called the poem "a failure," it received favorable reviews and brought about important friendships with the authors William Wordsworth (1770–1850) and Thomas Carlyle (1795–1881) and with the actor William C. Macready (1793–1873). Encouraged by these friendships, Browning began to emerge in the London social scene.

Encouraged by Macready, Browning turned to writing drama. But his first play, *Strafford* (1837), closed after only five performances. During the next ten years he wrote six other plays, none of which were successfully produced. All of Browning's plays are marred by abundant character analysis and meager dramatic action.

In 1838 Browning traveled to northern Italy to acquire firsthand knowledge of its setting and atmosphere for his next long poem. But the publication of *Sordello* in 1840 was a disaster that dealt Browning's growing reputation a severe blow. Critics unanimously declared the poem totally unclear and unreadable, and modern readers still find it difficult.



Robert Browning.

### ***Development of the dramatic monologue***

After the disappointing reception of both *Strafford* and *Sordello*, Browning turned to the dramatic monologue. He experimented with and perfected this form in the long poem *Pippa Passes* (1841) and two collections of shorter poems, *Dramatic Lyrics* (1842) and *Dramatic Romances and Lyrics* (1845).

Usually written in blank verse (unrhymed verse), the dramatic monologue is the speech of a single character in a moment of some dramatic significance. In the course of his monologue, the speaker reveals what this situation is, as well as the setting of the situation and to whom he is speaking. Of greatest interest, however, is

what he reveals about his own motives and personality. Often the speaker, while trying to justify himself to his listeners, actually reveals the faults of his character to the reader. Such works as “My Last Duchess,” “Soliloquy of the Spanish Cloister,” and “The Bishop Orders His Tomb” are poems in which the reader is given the pleasure of discovering more about the speaker than he understands about himself.

### ***Marriage to Elizabeth Barrett***

After reading Elizabeth Barrett’s flattering reference to him in her *Poems*, Browning wrote to her in January 1845. At that time, Barrett was an invalid confined to her room by a nervous disorder. The two became frequent correspondents nonetheless, and on May 20, 1845, Browning made his first personal visit. With his constant urging, she gained steadily in strength, hope, and will until she agreed to a secret marriage on September 12, 1846. Such secrecy was necessary because Barrett’s father had forbidden all of his children to marry.

Shortly after their marriage, the Brownings left London for Italy, and they made Casa Guidi in Florence their home from 1847 until 1861. It was there that their son, Robert Wiedeman Barrett Browning, was born on March 9, 1849.

### ***Mature poetry***

In 1855 Browning published *Men and Women*, a collection of fifty-one poems. Though the volume contained many of the dramatic monologues that are best known and loved by modern readers, it was not popular with Browning’s peers. But it did receive several favorable critical reviews.

After gradually declining in health for several years, Elizabeth Browning died on June 29, 1861. Browning found that he could no longer remain in Florence because of the memories it brought forth. He resolved to “go to England, and live and work and write.” In 1864 he published *Dramatis Personae*. Though some of the dramatic monologues in the collection are complex and difficult or overlong, this was the first of Browning’s works to become popular with the general reading public. His popularity increased with the publication of *The Ring and the Book* in 1868–69. This long poem is based on a murder and subsequent trial in Rome, Italy, in 1698. In a Florentine bookstall Browning had found an “old Yellow Book” that contained records of these events. The poem is composed of twelve dramatic monologues, in which the major characters give their interpretations of the crime. The accounts contradict each other, but eventually the truth emerges from behind the tangled web of lies and excuses.

*The Ring and the Book* was enthusiastically received by the public, and Browning became an important figure in London society. He was a frequent guest at dinners, concerts, and receptions. In the next ten years Browning wrote with great energy, publishing a volume almost every year. But none of these works match the quality of *Men and Women*, and they are little read today.

### ***Extended influence***

Though in the early stages of his career Browning’s poetic reputation was far less than that of his wife, by 1870 he had achieved equal status with the famous poet Alfred, Lord Tennyson (1809–1892). The

energy and roughness of Browning's poetry, however, contrasts sharply with the melancholy and polish of Tennyson's. Today, through his influence on Ezra Pound (1885–1972) and T. S. Eliot (1885–1965), Browning seems the most modern and enduring of all the mid-Victorian poets.

Browning died at his son's home in Venice, Italy, on December 12, 1889. In the "Epilogue" to his last collection of lyrics, Browning described himself as "One who never turned his back but marched breast forward,/ Never doubted clouds would break." He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

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## PAT BUCHANAN

**Born:** November 2, 1938

**Washington, D.C.**

*American politician, writer, and broadcaster*

Pat Buchanan is one of the country's most famous conservatives. Buchanan writes books and articles and appears on television to express his extreme conser-

vative views on the issues that he believes are important to the future of the United States. He has also campaigned unsuccessfully for the presidency several times.

### **Early life**

Patrick Buchanan was born in Washington, D.C., on November 2, 1938. His father, William Baldwin Buchanan, was a partner in a Washington, D.C., accounting firm. His mother, Catherine Elizabeth (Crum) Buchanan, was a nurse and a homemaker. Buchanan had six brothers and two sisters. His father taught the children good manners but also encouraged debates and fights. Buchanan would later say that his conservative views and beliefs were shaped by growing up in this large Irish-Catholic family.

Buchanan attended a Catholic elementary and high school, following in the steps of his father and brothers. Deciding to stay in Washington and to continue at a Catholic school, he enrolled in Georgetown University in 1956, studying for a degree in English. In his senior year he received a traffic ticket. Believing that his ticket was wrongfully given, he verbally and physically assaulted the police. He was then arrested and fined, and the incident left him with a minor police record. The university also suspended him for a year.

### **A career in the media**

While suspended from Georgetown, Buchanan learned accounting and took a serious look at his future. He decided to pursue a career in journalism and returned to complete his college education with a more mature attitude. After he graduated with honors from Georgetown in 1961, he entered the journalism school at Columbia Universi-



*Pat Buchanan.*

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ty. While he disliked studying the technical side of newspaper publishing, he found that he enjoyed writing. He went on to earn his master's degree in 1962.

Buchanan began his career as a reporter with the *St. Louis Globe-Democrat*. He quickly became an editorial writer for this conservative midwestern newspaper. He was appointed the paper's assistant editorial page editor in 1964. Thinking it would be many years before he could become an editor, and wanting some challenges in his life, he thought about a new career direction. He was eager to become more directly involved with politics.

### ***Working for the president***

In 1966 he arranged a meeting with Richard Nixon (1913–1994), whom he impressed with his conservative outlook and tough political style. Nixon hired him as an assistant. At that time Nixon, who had served two terms as vice president, was a partner in a New York City law firm. Nixon was involved in Republican Party activities and was preparing to run in the 1968 presidential election. Buchanan assisted Nixon with his speeches, newspaper articles, study tours, and other campaign activities.

Following Nixon's 1968 election, Buchanan joined the new presidential administration as a special assistant. He wrote speeches for Nixon and for Vice President Spiro Agnew (1918–1996). He helped make plans for the 1972 reelection campaign. During this time he met Shelly Ann Scarney, who was a receptionist at the White House. They married in 1971. In 1973 Buchanan devoted his attention to the Watergate crisis, which involved criminal activity in the 1972 Nixon campaign. He testified before the Senate Watergate Committee later that year and denied having suggested or used any illegal tactics.

After Nixon's resignation from office in August 1974, Buchanan stayed on for several months as an adviser to President Gerald Ford (1913–). Buchanan then left the White House and became a newspaper writer and public speaker. He later worked in radio and television, broadcasting his conservative views on political and social issues. With his style and viewpoints, he became known across the country as a spokesman for conservatives, who support traditional values and tend politically to resist change.

Buchanan returned to the White House in 1985 as director of communications at the start of President Ronald Reagan's (1911–) second term. He stayed only two years and then went back to broadcasting, writing, and giving lectures, where he made more money.

### ***Buchanan runs for office***

In 1992 Buchanan announced he was running in the Republican Party presidential primary. His campaign against President George Bush (1924–), who was seeking reelection, was designed to position himself as an “outsider” and to promote a strong conservative program. He ran with an “American First” theme, arguing that the country should limit its obligations in other countries and take care of business at home. Buchanan attracted attention from a public facing layoffs of workers, falling real estate values, increased taxes, and general unhappiness with government. He spoke for aid to religious schools, prayer in public schools, and limits on illegal immigrants. Buchanan called himself a “street corner” conservative, saying that he learned his beliefs at the dinner table, in schools, and on the street corners of his youth.

In the early 1992 New Hampshire primary Buchanan won 37 percent of the votes. However, in each succeeding primary he received fewer and fewer votes. He found it difficult to maintain a campaign organization and to raise funds, but he ran for the White House a second time in 1995, again basing his campaign on conservatism. His campaign slogan was “Reclaiming the American Dream.” However, he lost once again. Buchanan also founded and directed The American Cause, an educational foundation that emphasizes his political beliefs.

### ***One last try***

On March 2, 1999, Buchanan announced his bid to become the Republican candidate for president in the 2000 election. Buchanan took a disappointing fifth place finish at the Iowa primary in August 1999. On October 25, 1999, Buchanan announced his departure from the Republican Party to join the Reform Party. He declared his intention to become the Reform Party's candidate for the presidency. Some Republicans expressed relief over Buchanan's party switch following the release of his book *A Republic, Not an Empire*, which was published in September 1999. In this book he expressed opinions that many disagreed with regarding America's involvement in issues outside the United States.

Buchanan's run for president in the 2000 election caused a split in the Reform Party. Those opposed to Buchanan tried to prevent his name from being listed on the ballot. This, in addition to health problems and declining interest in the issues he wanted to discuss, led him to finish fourth in the election. He received less than 1 percent of all the votes cast.

Buchanan continues to remain in the public eye by writing books and newspaper articles, and giving lectures on conservative topics. In 2002 he published *The Death of the West: How Dying Populations and Immigrant Invasions Imperil Our Country and Civilization*. In this book Buchanan discusses his strong stand against immigration and his belief that immigrants are a threat to the American way of life.

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## PEARL S. BUCK

**Born:** June 26, 1892

Hillsboro, West Virginia

**Died:** March 6, 1973

Danby, Vermont

*American novelist and writer*

Pearl S. Buck was the first woman to win a Nobel Prize in Literature. Buck's life in China as an American citizen fueled her literary and personal commitment to improve relations between Americans and Asians.

### *Early years*

Pearl Sydenstricker was born in Hillsboro, West Virginia, on June 26, 1892. Her parents, Absalom and Caroline Sydenstricker, were Presbyterian missionaries, who were on a twelve-year leave from duty from their activities in Chinkiang, China at the time of her birth. The Sydenstrickers had returned to Hillsboro after losing all but two of their children to tropical disease. Despite their experience they returned to China when Pearl was just five months old. Unlike other foreign

families, the Sydenstrickers lived in the Chinese village. Pearl spoke Chinese before learning English. Her daily lessons included morning lessons from her mother and afternoon lessons from her Chinese tutor. Pearl recalled never feeling different from the Chinese children. But at age nine the family was forced to flee to Shanghai during the antifer-foreign Boxer Rebellion of 1900. They returned to China at the end of the rebellion, but Pearl attended boarding school in Shanghai at age fifteen. She moved to the United States two years later and started at the Randolph-Macon Woman's College in Virginia. After receiving a bachelor's degree in 1914, she took a teaching assistantship at the college but almost immediately returned to China to care for her ailing mother.

In 1917 she married John Lossing Buck, an American agricultural specialist, with whom she settled in northern China. From 1921 until 1934 they lived chiefly in Nanking, where her husband taught agricultural theory. Buck occasionally taught English literature at several universities in the city, although most of her time was spent caring for her mentally disabled daughter and her infirm parents. In 1925 Buck returned to the United States to pursue graduate studies at Cornell University, where she received a master's degree in English in 1926. Back in Nanking the following year, she barely escaped a revolutionary army attack on the city. Meanwhile, because of her family's financial difficulties, she resolved to begin writing.

### *Novels reflect love of China*

Buck's first novel, *East Wind: West Wind* (1930) was a study of the conflict between the old China and the new. This was followed

by *The Good Earth* (1931), an intense novel of Chinese peasant life, which won her a Pulitzer Prize. In 1933 Buck received a second master's degree, this time from Yale University, and in 1934 she took up permanent residence in the United States. In 1935 she divorced John Buck and married Richard J. Walsh, her publisher. Her extensive literary output resulted in a 1938 Nobel Prize in Literature, the first ever awarded to a woman.

### ***Humanitarian efforts occupy later life***

In the next three decades, while continuing to write many volumes, Buck worked to promote racial tolerance and ease the struggles of disadvantaged Asians, particularly children. In 1941 she founded the East and West Association to promote greater understanding among the world's peoples. In 1949 she established Welcome House, an adoption agency for Asian American children. Her special interest in children resulted in many books for them. A steadfast supporter of multiracial families, in 1964 she organized the Pearl S. Buck Foundation, which supports Asian American children and their mothers living abroad.

Although Buck's literary career embraced a variety of types, almost all of her stories are set in China: the extremely popular novel *Dragon Seed*, its less popular sequel *The Promise* (1943), and many later novels, including *Peony* (1948), *Letter from Peking* (1957), and *The New Year* (1968). Among her other works are the highly successful *The Living Reed* (1963), which details the history of a Korean family during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In the late 1940s Buck also wrote a trilogy under the pen name John Sedges.



*Pearl S. Buck.*

### ***Honored for generous spirit***

Buck's play *A Desert Incident* was produced in New York City in 1959. Her ability as an essayist is represented by *American Argument* (written with Eslanda Goode Robeson, 1949). *Friend to Friend* (1958) was an open, honest conversation with Philippine president Carlos P. Rómulo (1899–1985).

Buck died of lung cancer in 1973, with more than one hundred written works to her credit. But even more significant, perhaps, were the over three hundred awards she received for her humanitarian efforts on behalf of improved race relations worldwide.

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## BUDDHA

**Born:** c. 563 B.C.E.

**Kapilavastu, India**

**Died:** c. 483 B.C.E.

**Kusinagara, India**

*Indian religious teacher and philosopher*

The Buddha was an Indian philosopher (seeker of wisdom), religious teacher, and the historical founder of Buddhism. He is regarded by some as a human spiritual teacher (concerned with religious values) and by others as an all-knowing supreme being.

### Early years

The Buddha, or “enlightened one” (free from ignorance and misunderstanding), was born Siddhartha Gautama in northern India near the town of Kapilavastu. His father was ruler of a poor Indian tribe, the Shakyas. His mother died seven days after giving birth to him. Some legends say that he was able to walk and talk at birth. It is also written that he first fell into a state of meditation (focus-

ing all of one’s thoughts on something) as a boy while sitting under a tree watching his father plow a field. Meditation was to become an important part of his life.

It is said that Gautama’s father, in order to prevent him from worrying about the problems of suffering, death, and injustice, built a special palace for him surrounded with distracting luxuries. Gautama eventually married and had a son. But he continued to dwell on the great religious questions, and at the age of twenty-nine he made a bold move. He officially gave up his worldly commitments, left his family, and began a search for the answers to the questions that bothered him.

Gautama is said to have experimented with many different teachings for seven years but found none of them acceptable. He set them all aside, and at last, in a single night of deep meditation, he achieved a major breakthrough, an absolutely clear awareness of the real questions of life and the unique religious means for dealing with them. This enlightenment confirmed the truth of his insight, and at this point he became the Buddha.

### The Buddha’s teaching

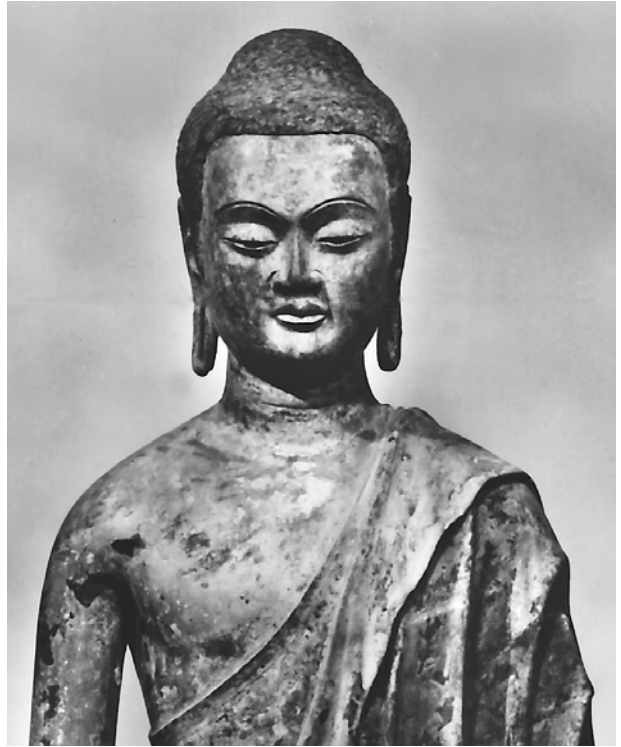
It is told that at the moment of the Buddha’s enlightenment he was entitled to its immediate rewards—complete salvation (freedom from sin) and spiritual release from the bonds of existence. This would have meant that his doctrine (teachings) would never have been made known to other men. Another problem was how to communicate the teachings properly. After debating these issues, the Buddha decided to bring the message to others out of his love and concern for all men. This legend shows that the formal teaching is just the beginning. Understand-

ing the teaching and putting it into practice varies greatly, depending on the ability of those who hear it, their needs, and their historical and cultural situation. In a sense, the history of Buddhism, in all its different forms, is proof of this fact.

The teaching is basically optimistic (hopeful about the future). It holds that every human being—regardless of his social position or past life—can through his own efforts obtain control of himself, of his ideas and passions, and of his destiny. Its main principles are caring for others, love, and noninjury to living creatures, and they place great importance on the obligation of all people to promote friendship and peace. The teachings are universal standards of behavior that have obvious benefits in terms of improving interpersonal relationships and social order. Buddha's political teachings were drawn from those of his own clan. The king had the obligation to care for his people and, especially, to set high moral standards. A man who cannot do this is not worthy to rule. (In the traditions the Buddha is represented as consulting frequently with the leaders of the great states and petty kingdoms, teaching his beliefs and seeking to end all warfare.)

### *Teaching attracts followers*

The traditions relate that the Buddha first preached his doctrine (Dharma) in Benares, India's great holy city. He began his missionary work soon after with a handful of followers, offering the teaching to all who would hear and understand. The lives and practices of this little band were at first centered on the spiritual authority of the Buddha himself. As the number of followers grew, the loosely structured community (Sangha)



*Buddha.*

became more organized. It seems probable that by the time of the Buddha's death, at the age of eighty, a number of basic institutional patterns had been set. These included a code of rules to keep order and a collection of the Buddha's sayings. The major ceremonies included the twice-monthly uposatha, a gathering of the monks to recite the rules. Women were admitted to the order. Within the community all barriers of class, race, sex, and previous background were ignored under the impact of the universal message of the teaching.

Despite this appearance of routine organization, the Buddha in one of his last

sermons is shown as rejecting all forms of religious authority: "Be lamps unto yourselves, O monks." The main purpose of the rules was to guard the independence of each monk in his own spiritual quest. All those who had become official monks had an equal vote on matters affecting the welfare of the community. When disagreements within the group could not be resolved, those who disagreed simply left and formed a new community. Monks guilty of breaking the code of rules were expected to confess and to punish themselves. The Buddha is occasionally represented as being confused and disgusted by the often selfish behavior of the monks. On at least one occasion he took time to wash and care for a sick monk who had been neglected by the others. His own cousin, Devadatta, is believed to have started a movement to replace the Buddha as head of the order.

Although most of the Buddha's followers devoted their entire lives to the teachings, the power of the Buddha's personality also attracted many lay (nonreligious) followers, known as the "householders." The tradition relates that the Buddha said only that it was harder for the lay followers to attain final salvation, or nirvana, but this did not stop its members from trying. Lay devotees promised to follow the five rules (no killing, stealing, lying, having sex outside of marriage, or consumption of alcoholic beverages) for the sake of "well-being in this world and the next."

#### ***Buddha's influence today***

The most striking feature of Buddhism is the wide variety of faiths and practices its teachings have inspired. In Tibet the political system was ruled until recently by spiritual

leaders, the Dalai and Panchen Lamas, who were regarded as supreme versions of the Buddha. Tibetan Tantrism is a combination of Buddhist and primitive teachings. In China and Japan, Zen Buddhism represents a special meditation-based adaptation that has been strongly influenced by Chinese values. In Sri Lanka Theravada Buddhism has served as an effective state religion, and is often combined with primitive animism (belief in spirits) and magic.

In looking for a single point of unity in all of these different forms of Buddhism, it is to be found only in the Buddha himself, who persists in all the traditions as a model of spiritual perfection and saving power.

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**RALPH  
BUNCHE**

**Born:** August 7, 1904

**Detroit, Michigan**

**Died:** December 9, 1971

**New York, New York**

*African American diplomat and professor*

Ralph Bunche was the highest American official in the United Nations. In 1950 he became the first African American to win the Nobel Peace Prize for his work on the negotiations that led to a truce in the First Arab-Israeli War (1948–49).

### *Childhood and early career*

Ralph Johnson Bunche was born in Detroit, Michigan, on August 7, 1904. (His given last name was Bunch, but as a teenager he added the “e” because he thought it looked better.) Bunche’s father was a barber, and his parents were very poor. In time they also became very ill and both died when he was thirteen years old. After his parents’ deaths Bunche and his young sister went to live with his maternal grandmother in Los Angeles. While going to school he helped support the family by working as a janitor, a carpet-layer, and a seaman. His grandmother’s strong will and her wisdom had a lasting influence on him.

Bunche attended the University of California at Los Angeles on scholarships and graduated in 1927. He earned a master’s degree at Harvard University in 1928 and a doctor of philosophy (Ph.D.) degree in government and international relations at Harvard in 1934.

In 1928 Bunche began teaching in the Department of Political Science at Howard University. He was department chairman from 1937 to 1942. In 1930 he married Ruth Harris, one of his students. The couple had three children. In 1950 he was appointed to the faculty of Harvard University, but after two leaves of absence he resigned in 1952, without having taught there.



*Ralph Bunche.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

### **United Nations**

Bunche was an expert on colonialism. The term colonialism refers to a nation’s possession or control over a colony. (For example, both the United States and Nigeria were once colonies ruled by Great Britain.) During World War II (1939–45), Bunche worked in the U.S. Office of Strategic Services as an expert on African and Far Eastern affairs. In 1944 he moved to the U.S. State Department. From 1944 to 1946 Bunche was active as an expert on trusteeship in the planning and establishment of the United Nations (UN). (Trusteeship is the overseeing of a colony or territory by a country or countries given the

authority to do so by the UN.) In 1947 Bunche was asked to join the UN Secretariat by the UN's Secretary General, Trygve Lie (1896–1968). Bunche served as director of the Trusteeship Division.

At the UN Bunche was given some difficult assignments. In 1947 he was a member of the UN Special Committee on Palestine that recommended Palestine's division into Jewish and Arab states. The Arabs refused to accept the UN plan. This led to the first Arab-Israeli War. When the UN's chief negotiator in that conflict was assassinated in 1948, Bunche took his place. From January to June 1949 he led the difficult negotiations between Arab and Israeli groups on the Greek island of Rhodes. The negotiations eventually led to an agreement to end the fighting. Both sides praised his achievement, and in 1950 he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for his work.

From 1955 to 1971 Bunche held important positions at the UN. He directed UN peacekeeping operations in the Suez area of the Middle East (1956), in the Congo (1960), and on the island of Cyprus (1964). He was also responsible for the UN's program involving the peaceful uses of atomic energy. In June 1971 he retired while suffering from a fatal illness.

### ***Concern with race relations***

Bunche was the grandson of a slave. His personal experience of prejudice (making judgments about a person solely based on his or her race) and his concern about race relations led him to become a teacher and an expert in the problems of colonialism. In 1936 he was codirector of the Institute of Race Relations at Swarthmore College. From 1938 to 1940 he assisted the Swedish sociol-

ogist Gunnar Myrdal (1898–1987) in his investigation of racial problems in the United States. Their research led to Myrdal's book *An American Dilemma*.

For twenty-two years Bunche was a member of the board of directors of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). In 1965 he participated in marches in Selma and Montgomery, Alabama. Led by Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968), the marches protested racial discrimination.

Bunche received many honorary degrees and awards. President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) presented him with the Medal of Freedom in 1963. Bunche died in New York City on December 9, 1971.

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**WARREN  
BURGER**

**Born:** September 17, 1907

**St. Paul, Minnesota**

**Died:** June 25, 1995

**Washington, D.C.**

*American Supreme Court justice*

**W**arren Burger worked his way through law school. Through hard work, political connections, and a firm belief in law and order, he became chief justice of the U.S. Supreme Court from 1969 to 1986. In addition to leading the court in a series of famous decisions, he called for changes to improve the court system, including better training and education for lawyers and judges.

### ***An early interest in law***

Warren E. Burger was born on September 17, 1907, in St. Paul, Minnesota. He was the fourth of seven children born to Charles Joseph Burger, a railroad cargo inspector and traveling salesman, and Katherine (Schnittger) Burger, a homemaker. The family struggled to make ends meet, and by age nine Burger was delivering newspapers to help out. As a fourth-grader, he became ill and missed a year of school. During this time, he began reading law books and biographies of American historical figures.

Unable to attend Princeton because of his family's limited resources, Burger took courses at the University of Minnesota for two years and then enrolled in a night law school. Combining study with work as a life insurance salesman, he earned his law degree from St. Paul College of Law in 1931. He then joined a law firm in St. Paul. In addition to handling a variety of civil and criminal cases, he taught contract law at St. Paul College of Law for a dozen years. On November 8, 1933, he married Elvera Stromberg, a fellow student from the University of Minnesota.

### ***Political career***

Burger became active in Republican politics and helped organize the Minnesota



Warren Burger.

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Young Republicans in 1934. He played an important role in the successful 1938 campaign for governor of Harold Stassen (1907–2001). At both the 1948 and 1952 Republican National Conventions, Burger acted as a manager for Stassen's unsuccessful presidential campaign. During the 1952 gathering Burger supported Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969), helping him win the presidential election.

After the election President Eisenhower made Burger head of the Justice Department's Civil Division. Burger supervised a staff of approximately 180 lawyers. Although he had almost no experience in maritime law (law



involving goods that are transported on the seas), Burger successfully handled several cases involving shipping for the government and even helped end a dockworker's strike on the East Coast in 1953.

### ***Law and order judge***

In 1955 Eisenhower named Burger to the U.S. Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia. While on that bench, Burger wrote several articles and gave lectures on a variety of topics. His opinions on criminal cases attracted attention. He said that confessions should be admitted into evidence even when the police have broken legal rules in obtaining them. He also argued that physical evidence should be allowed even if it has been obtained through forcible entry (forced entry without legal permission).

During the 1968 presidential campaign, Richard Nixon (1913–1994) told a public worried about the rising crime rate that the Supreme Court was “seriously hamstringing the peace forces in our society and strengthening the criminal forces.” In other words, the court was making decisions that made it difficult to enforce laws and was thus helping criminals. He promised, if elected, to ensure that the court would no longer stand in the way of law enforcement (the people and government agencies that work to catch and punish criminals). The victorious Nixon's first step toward that goal was appointing Burger to succeed Earl Warren (1891–1974) as chief justice. In Burger's most famous criminal case, the loser was the president. In 1974 Burger ordered Nixon to turn over tape recordings to Watergate special prosecutor Leon Jaworski (1905–1982). These tapes contained evidence that Nixon had commit-

ted a crime. This ruling led directly to the president's decision to leave office before the end of his term.

In more routine criminal cases, Burger as chief justice was everything Nixon had hoped for. Burger led the court in a series of decisions that went against Warren court rulings. In *Harris v. New York* (1971), he announced that a statement obtained without reading a suspect his or her rights as required by *Miranda v. Arizona* (1966) could be used in court cases. Burger also helped give new life to the death penalty, which had been legalized again by the court in 1976 but was rarely carried out. With the chief justice lashing out at lawyers who used whatever methods they could to keep their clients alive, the Supreme Court rejected almost all appeals in such cases. (In an appeal, a case or a decision in a case is reviewed by a higher court.) Executions began to occur with greater frequency.

### ***Civil rights and liberties***

Burger was less sympathetic toward civil liberties claims than Earl Warren had been. Despite having worked in Minnesota with groups seeking to improve race relations, his rulings on civil rights were inconsistent—some for, some against. Burger's decisions on matters involving the First Amendment's establishment of religion clause were also inconsistent. He urged strict separation between church and state in one case involving state funding to assist religious schools, but in two other cases he supported the presence of religion in state functions: He upheld Nebraska's practice of opening legislative sessions with a prayer delivered by a state-paid Protestant chaplain, as well as the right of the

town of Pawtucket, Rhode Island, to display a nativity scene in front of its city hall.

Burger also made it more difficult for civil rights and civil liberties claims to be decided on in federal court. The Burger court increased the number of officials who could not be sued (have a law suit brought against them) for damages (payment to a person or people who suffered a loss or an injury) for violating citizens' constitutional rights. The court also made it more difficult for citizens to file class-action suits, lawsuits in which one or more persons sue on behalf of a large group whose members have suffered an injustice or inequality.

### **Legacy of reform**

Despite being less receptive to civil rights and civil liberties claims, the Burger court was not as different from the Warren court as some people expected it to be. Although often critical of the work of the Warren court, the Burger court did not undo it. None of the Warren court's major decisions was reversed. Even in the area of criminal law, the Burger court limited the effect of, rather than overturned, Warren court rulings.

After seventeen years on the court Burger had been responsible for many reforms and improvements in the justice process. At his suggestion many courts began to employ professional administrators (people who supervise the way a court runs), and an institute was set up to train them. Burger was in favor of continuing education for judges. His attacks on the abilities of trial lawyers inspired improvements in their training. He also improved the working relationship between federal courts and state courts that served the same geographic

areas. In 1986 Burger resigned as chief justice to work full time as head of the U.S. Constitution Bicentennial Commission. He was also chancellor, or chief officer, of the College of William and Mary, from 1986 to 1993. Warren Burger died in Washington, D.C., on June 25, 1995.

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## ROBERT BURNS

**Born:** January 25, 1759

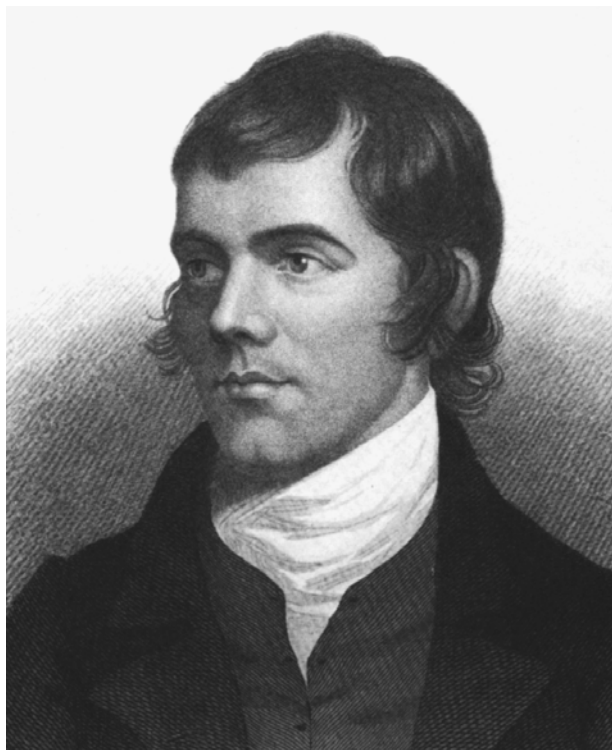
**Alloway, Ayrshire, Scotland**

**Died:** July 21, 1796

**Dumfries, Scotland**

*Scottish poet*

**I**ntense feeling and technical skill characterizes the work of the Scottish poet Robert Burns. His best work is in Scots, the language of southern Scotland. He is one of the greatest authors of that language in the last four centuries.



Robert Burns.

### *Early life and education*

Robert Burns was born in Alloway, Ayrshire, Scotland, on January 25, 1759, to hard-working farmer parents. He began helping his father with farm work at the age of twelve. The difficulty of the labor later had a crippling effect on his health. Although Burns's formal schooling was limited, he loved to read and for a time he was tutored by John Murdoch, who thoroughly educated him in eighteenth-century English literature.

The family worked hard on the Ayrshire farm and at several others, but their lives were never made easier. Ongoing troubles with landlords and their agents fueled the rebellion that Burns felt against authority,

which later became a major theme in his poetry. In 1784 his father died, and the family moved a few miles away to Mossgiel, Scotland. Here and in the nearby town of Mauchline, Scotland, the charming and attractive Burns began numerous love affairs, some of which extended to about 1790. (By the end of his short life he was to have fathered fourteen children by six different mothers.)

### *Achievement and sudden fame*

While continuing to do farm work in Mossgiel, Burns began writing poetry, and his talents developed in a spectacular way. Many of his poems expressed his love of the country and its people and poked fun at his favorite target, followers of Calvinism (a religion that features a strict belief in God's absolute will over the affairs of humans). In 1786 he published *Poems, Chiefly in the Scottish Dialect* at nearby Kilmarnock, Scotland, and the book was a success. At this time Burns was twenty-seven, and he had written some of the most effective and biting pieces of satire (ridicule or scorn) in the language. Among them were "Holy Willie's Prayer" (a dramatic speech that mocked a believer in Calvinism) and "The Holy Fair" (a humorous description of a Scottish religious camp meeting).

Other important poems that appeared in his first volume were "Address to the Unco Guid" (an appeal to the religious not to look down on sinners); "The Jolly Beggars" (a dramatic poem celebrating poor people); the masterful "Address to the Deil" (that is, to the Devil); "The Cotter's Saturday Night" (in praise of the Scottish countryside); and the moving "Auld Farmer's Salutation to His

Mare" and "To a Mouse" (the latter a poem written to a field mouse who has been killed by a farmer while plowing). These and other poems by Burns are almost unequaled in their combination of accurate local language and depth of feeling. Not for centuries had such fine poetry been written in the Scots tongue.

But 1786 was also a year of great distress for Burns. His affair with Jean Armour had resulted in the birth of twins, and her parents refused to allow the couple to marry because of Burns's reputation as a critic of religion. In addition, Burns was in love with Mary Campbell, for whom he wrote the song "Highland Mary," but she died in 1786 as a result of giving birth to his child. Burns considered leaving the country for Jamaica, but he abandoned the plan and spent the winter in Edinburgh, Scotland, where he was praised and honored for the success of his book. Early in 1787 a new edition of his poems was published that made him famous not only throughout Scotland but also in England and internationally. After a summer and fall spent touring Scotland (the only real traveling he ever did) and restarting his affair with Jean, Burns spent a second winter in Edinburgh. In March 1788 Burns returned to Mauchline and finally married Jean, who had given birth to a second set of his twins.

### **Later years and his songs**

After his wedding Burns turned his efforts to supporting his family. In 1788 he leased a farm at Ellisland, Scotland, forty-five miles from Mauchline. After annoying delays in the building of his house and several rough years trying to make an income from his farmland, he moved with Jean and the children to Dumfries, Scotland. In 1789 he

had begun working as a tax inspector, a profession in which he continued until his death. At Ellisland Burns had little free time, but it was there that he wrote his masterpiece of comic humor "Tam o'Shanter," his one outstanding piece of narrative verse.

Burns also wrote numerous songs (some of them original lyrics for old tunes, some reworkings of old lyrics) for *The Scots Musical Museum*, a collection of Scottish songs with which he had been associated since 1787. From 1792 until his death he also contributed to a similar work, *A Select Collection of Original Scottish Airs*. Most of Burns's poetic efforts in the Ellisland and Dumfries periods was in this area of song writing and song editing (he had written songs earlier but had usually not published them), and the results were very popular. Among the lyrics that he composed or reworked were "Mary Morison," "Highland Mary," "Duncan Gray," "Green Grow the Rash-es, O," "Auld Lang Syne," "John Anderson, My Jo," "Scots Wha Hae Wi' Wallace Bled," "A Man's a Man for A' That," "A Red, Red Rose," and "Ye Banks and Braes o' Bonie Doon." These are true song lyrics—that is, they are not poems meant to be set to music but rather are poems written to melodies that define the rhythm.

Burns's years in Dumfries were years of work and hardship, but contrary to reports written after his death, he was not shunned by others and he did not fall into moral decline. His fellow townsmen and his coworkers respected him. His health, which always caused him problems, began to fail, and he died of heart disease on July 21, 1796. His wife gave birth to their last child on the day of his funeral.

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## AARON BURR

**Born:** February 6, 1756

Newark, New Jersey

**Died:** September 14, 1836

Port Richmond, Staten Island, New York

*American vice president, lawyer, and politician*

American lawyer and politician Aaron Burr (1756–1836) was vice president under Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826). Political conspiracy and his famous duel with Alexander Hamilton (1755–1804) secured Burr an unfavorable place in American history.

**Early life, education, and revolution**

Aaron Burr was born in Newark, New Jersey, on February 6, 1756, the son of a Presbyterian minister. His father died when Aaron was just nineteen months old, shortly after moving the family to Princeton, New Jersey. Within the year, his mother and grandparents died as well. Orphaned along with his older sister Sarah, Burr was placed

in the care of his twenty-year-old uncle, Timothy Edwards.

Burr graduated from Princeton University at the age of seventeen. He studied religion for a while but eventually decided to study law instead. His studies were halted by the outbreak of the American Revolution (1775–83). Burr joined the Continental Army, fighting for American independence from Great Britain. He fought in the battles of New York, Quebec, and Monmouth. In 1779 Burr's health forced him to resign from the military, and he resumed his law studies in New York City.

In 1782 Burr was admitted to the New York Bar, an association for lawyers. The same year, he married Theodosia Bartow Prevost, a woman ten years older than him and the widow of a British army officer. Aaron and Theodosia had four children together. Tragically, only his daughter Theodosia lived to be an adult.

After establishing a successful law practice in Albany, New York, Burr returned to New York City in 1783, where he quickly gained a reputation as a superior lawyer. During his years as a New York City lawyer, Burr clashed with many other city lawyers, including Alexander Hamilton.

**Moving into politics**

In the 1790s Burr began a career in politics. A member of the Jeffersonian Party (a political party whose members supported a weak federal government and a strict interpretation of the Constitution), Burr also had close dealings with the opposing Federalist Party (a political party whose members supported a strong federal government and a

loose interpretation of the Constitution). Working well between the era's two dominant political parties was beneficial to Burr, but it also created problems for him. On one hand, Burr worked well as a mediator, or middleman, between the two opposing parties. On the other hand, his failure to make a clear choice between political parties raised suspicion among other politicians.

In 1791 Burr won a seat in the U.S. Senate by defeating Philip Schuyler (1733–1804), Alexander Hamilton's father-in-law. This strengthened Hamilton's feelings of professional and personal hatred toward Burr.

During his term as senator, Burr's political uncertainties became more and more evident and resulted in several professional setbacks. In 1796 he lost his seat in the senate. From 1797 to 1799, Burr served in the New York legislature but was defeated for reelection.

### ***Election and controversy***

The presidential election of 1800 gave Burr the opportunity to develop his career in national politics. Running against the popular Thomas Jefferson, Burr convinced his Jeffersonian friends in Congress to support him as well as Jefferson. By doing this, Burr all but shut out the opposing Federalist candidates.

The presidential election ended in a tie, with both Burr and Jefferson winning the same number of votes. Congress, where rumors circulated about Burr's Federalist leanings, was then given the task of breaking the tie and choosing the next president. Meanwhile, Alexander Hamilton argued strongly that Jefferson should be elected the fifth president of the United States. In the



*Aaron Burr.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

end, Jefferson won the presidency. At that time, Burr, the runner-up for president, became vice president.

Burr had become vice president, but his political career was near its end. He soon began to lose support among the party loyalists. In 1804 the Jeffersonians did not renominate Burr for vice president.

### ***The Hamilton-Burr duel***

Although Burr's political career had ended, his story in American history was far from finished. In July 1804, Burr's legendary duel with Hamilton took place. For years,

the two had built up a dislike for one another. Burr initially tried to avoid the duel, which at the time was legal in parts of the country, but Hamilton demanded it take place. His insistence on the duel brought about his own death, as Burr mortally wounded him with a pistol shot. News of Hamilton's death spread and Burr was forced to flee, fearing for his safety. By the time things calmed down, Burr had lost what remained of his political support in New York and within the Jeffersonian party.

### ***Burr's plot***

As if killing a political enemy was not enough, Burr continued his involvement in questionable activities. In 1806 his plot to gain power in western territories was uncovered. About a year before the duel with Hamilton, Burr had begun to plan to create an independent nation. Burr planned to do so either by invading and taking over Spanish territory near the area that would later become Florida or by separating the Mississippi Valley from the rest of America. Burr met with several political and military leaders in order to win support. He even tried to get funding from England, but failed and turned to private sources.

In August 1806 Burr began building support in the Ohio Valley. President Jefferson found out about Burr's activities and sent out a warning to western officials telling them to carefully watch Burr's moves. The president also warned American citizens not to participate in his plan. Meanwhile, Burr and about one hundred followers moved south along the Ohio River. The plot came to an end when Burr was trapped between the Ohio militia and forces in New Orleans. He

fled to Mobile, Alabama, but was arrested a few miles from Spanish Florida.

### ***A patriot on trial***

For his plans in the west, Burr was charged with the high misdemeanor, or serious offense, of launching a military expedition against the Spanish Territory. For his attempt to separate parts of the United States, Burr was also charged with treason, the betrayal of one's own country. The high misdemeanor charge was dropped and Burr was found innocent of treason.

Although he was legally a free man and the charges against him had been dropped, Burr's political career was finished. For the next several years he wandered through Europe, where he tried without success to gain support for a revolution in Mexico, to free the Spanish colonies, and to start a war between England and the United States.

After Burr returned to America in 1812, ill and financially ruined, he attempted to reestablish his career in law. For a time he was moderately successful. Then a tragedy in his personal life occurred in December 1812, when his cherished daughter Theodosia died at sea.

The years passed, and by 1830 Burr was heavily dependent on friends for financial support. Over the next several years, a series of strokes left him paralyzed and completely dependent on his cousin's care. Burr died on Staten Island, New York, on Sept. 14, 1836.

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## GEORGE BUSH

**Born:** June 12, 1924

**Milton, Massachusetts**

*American president, vice president, and politician*

A successful businessman, George Bush emerged as a national political leader during the 1970s. He served two terms as vice president (1981–89) under Republican President Ronald Reagan (1911–), and in 1988, he was elected the forty-first president of the United States.

### *Life as a boy*

George Herbert Walker Bush was born on June 12, 1924, in Milton, Massachusetts. His parents, both from prominent Wall Street families, were Prescott and Dorothy Walker Bush. Prescott Bush served as a U.S. senator from Connecticut from 1952 to 1962. George Bush grew up in the wealthy New York City suburb of Greenwich, Connecticut, vacationing in the summers in Kennebunkport, Maine.

### *From student to soldier*

As a boy Bush attended exclusive private schools where he excelled both in the class-

room and on the athletic field. After graduating from Phillips Academy in 1942, he enrolled in the U.S. Navy Reserve. Bush was assigned as a navy flight pilot in 1943, serving until the end of World War II (1939–45). Meanwhile, he had become secretly engaged to Barbara Pierce, and the couple married on January 6, 1945, in Rye, New York. The Bushes became the parents of six children, one of whom died of leukemia (a blood disease) when she was three years old.

### *From baseball to businessman*

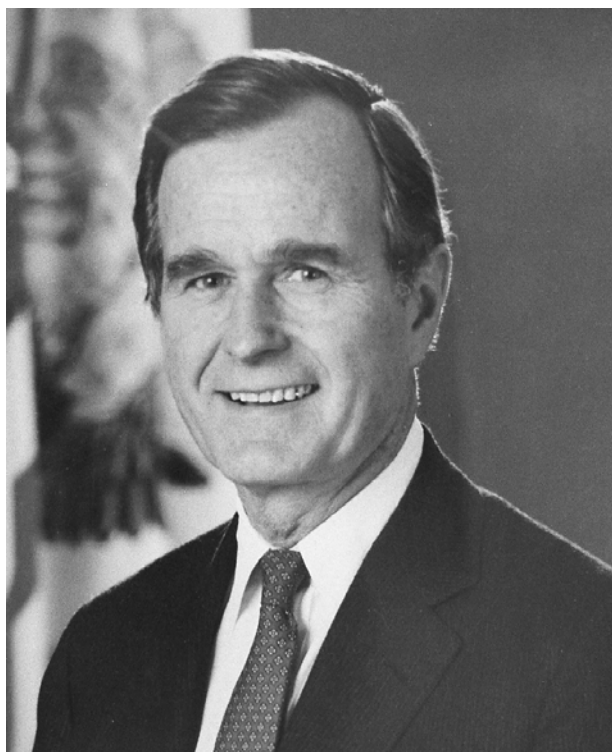
After the war, Bush enrolled at Yale University in September 1945. An ambitious and highly competitive student, he earned a degree in economics within three years. Although a married military veteran, Bush was active in campus social and athletic activities. He played three years of baseball and eventually captained the team.

Following graduation in 1948, Bush became an oilfield supply salesman in Odessa, Texas. Rising quickly in an industry that was experiencing a postwar boom, Bush started his own oil and gas drilling firm in 1953. After merging with another firm in 1955, Bush moved the corporate headquarters to Houston, Texas, in September 1958.

### *A taste of politics*

After becoming a millionaire businessman, Bush became active in local Republican politics and served as Houston County party chairman. In 1964 he challenged the popular Democratic senator Ralph Yarborough (1904–1996) for a seat in the Senate. In the campaign, Bush took a stand against civil rights laws, supported U.S. withdrawal from the United Nations if the organization admit-





*George Bush.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

ted the People's Republic of China, and backed cuts in foreign spending. Bush lost the election.

Despite the loss, Bush did not withdraw from politics. In 1966 he won election to the House of Representatives from a Houston suburban district, and became a two-term congressman, serving from 1966 to 1970. While in Congress, Bush supported a "freedom of choice" alternative to school desegregation. (Desegregation was the process of putting people of different races together to end policies of segregation, which had kept races separate.) Bush also supported the major issues of President Richard Nixon

(1913–1994), including the Family Assistance Plan (a program to help needy people by giving them a minimum amount of money while requiring them to look for or keep jobs), during 1969 and 1970. In 1970 Bush again ran for senator and was again defeated.

### ***Washington and Watergate***

As a reward for his loyalty, President Nixon appointed Bush U.S. ambassador to the United Nations in February 1971. Given Bush's lack of foreign-policy experience, some viewed this appointment as a political favor. Bush, however, proved to be able and popular in the position, particularly in his handling of difficult situations involving countries in the Far East.

In December 1972, at Nixon's request, Bush gave up his position as ambassador of the United Nations to accept the post of chairman of the Republican National Committee. This appointment turned out to be a demanding assignment when the Senate, in the spring of 1973, began a highly publicized investigation into the so-called "Watergate Affair." Named for the Washington, D.C., complex in which it took place, the Watergate scandal involved burglary and illegal recordings of Nixon's opponents during the 1972 presidential election. Nixon's personal involvement was eventually exposed.

In early 1973, Bush was involved in the House debates about whether or not to impeach (to try a U.S. public official in the U.S. Congress for misconduct in office) President Nixon. Bush publicly supported the president and questioned the motives of the president's political enemies. Following Nixon's decision to leave office in August

1974, Bush was assigned to head a U.S. relations office in Peking, China.

### ***Rebuilding the CIA***

Bush remained as the head of the U.S. relations office in Peking until December 1975. The following month he accepted appointment as director of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). At the time, the CIA was viewed unfavorably by the American public. Bush actively tried to restore morale within the agency and to deflect criticisms of the agency's past role and authority. In 1977, Bush resigned as director of the CIA and returned to Houston to become chairman of the First National Bank of Houston.

### ***Looking toward the White House***

Soon after his return to Texas, Bush began campaigning for the Republican presidential nomination of 1980. Using the contacts he made while in Washington, Bush traveled the country with his family, establishing his own fund-raising organization. After formally announcing his candidacy in May 1979, he quickly emerged as the principal opponent of Ronald Reagan (1911–), the Republican frontrunner and former governor of California. However, Bush's failure to find a major issue that would set him apart from his opponent ended his presidential hopes. In a surprise decision, Reagan chose Bush as his vice presidential running mate.

With Reagan's decisive victory over Democratic president Jimmy Carter (1924–) in 1980, Vice President Bush proved to be a loyal, hardworking supporter of the president. Renominated in 1984, Bush retained the vice presidency with yet another Reagan landslide victory.

### ***President in a changing world***

In 1988, Bush defeated Massachusetts governor Michael Dukakis (1933–) to become the forty-first president of the United States. With this victory, many felt he had overcome his weak image as a leader. The world began changing rapidly during Bush's presidency. The Cold War, which had raised tensions between Eastern and Western nations since the 1950s, came to a halt when the Communist governments of the Soviet Union and eastern Europe fell. America's crushing defeat of Iraq in the Persian Gulf War (1990–91), which resulted in the removal of Iraqi troops from Kuwait, also boosted Bush's popularity.

As president, Bush also had his share of problems. Many historians believe that Bush ran a negative campaign in 1988 that affected his ability to govern the country and gain the trust of the American people. Other critics said he lacked vision and leadership. He also had a relatively inexperienced vice president in former Indiana senator Dan Quayle (1947–). In 1992, with the country in the midst of a recession (a slowdown in economic activity), he lost his reelection to Democrat Bill Clinton (1946–).

### ***Life after politics***

In retirement, has Bush kept a relatively low profile, preferring to travel and spend time with his grandchildren. In March 1997, at the age of seventy-two, he became (many believe) the first American president to jump out of an airplane. He also cowrote *A World Transformed*, a personal account of his dealings with foreign policy during his time as president.

In November 1997 the George Bush Presidential Library and Museum opened on the campus of Texas A&M University, in College Station, Texas. It is the tenth presidential library overseen by the National Archives and includes information covering Bush's long public career—from ambassador to world leader. Located within the complex is the George Bush School of Government & Public Service, which will provide graduate education to those who wish to lead and manage organizations serving the public interest.

Electing to stay mainly in the background, Bush watched as his son, George W. Bush, became president in the 2000 election, one of the closest presidential races in history.

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## GEORGE W. BUSH

**Born:** July 6, 1946

**New Haven, Connecticut**

*American president, politician, and businessman*

In 2000 George W. Bush (1946–) became the forty-third president of the United States, marking a rise to the top American political office in a relatively short political career. Bush's victory was the second time in American history that the son of a former president took on the world's most powerful political job.

#### **A privileged childhood**

George Walker Bush was born in New Haven, Connecticut, on July 6, 1946, to Barbara and George Herbert Walker Bush. His parents moved the family to Texas when George W. was two years old. There his father made a fortune in the oil business. As the eldest of six children, George W. was expected to shine. He was an all-around athlete, a fair student, and an occasional troublemaker in school—he was once punished for painting a mustache on his face during music class. In seventh grade, he ran for class president and won.

While his family lived in Houston, Texas, George W. was sent back east to enroll at Phillips Academy, a private school in Andover, Massachusetts. Although George W. became actively involved in sports, playing baseball, basketball, and football, his high school academic record was far from exceptional. However, through his family's powerful connections, Bush landed a spot at Yale University in Connecticut, where both his father and grandfather had attended.

At Yale, Bush was a popular student. He became president of the Delta Kappa Epsilon fraternity and enjoyed socializing, watching and playing football, and dating. Grades were not a high priority, and because of his mischievous behavior, Bush had a few minor

run-ins with the law. Despite his background of privilege, Bush became more at ease with all kinds of people in college. "I was never one to feel guilty," he said about his wealth and family connections. "I feel lucky."

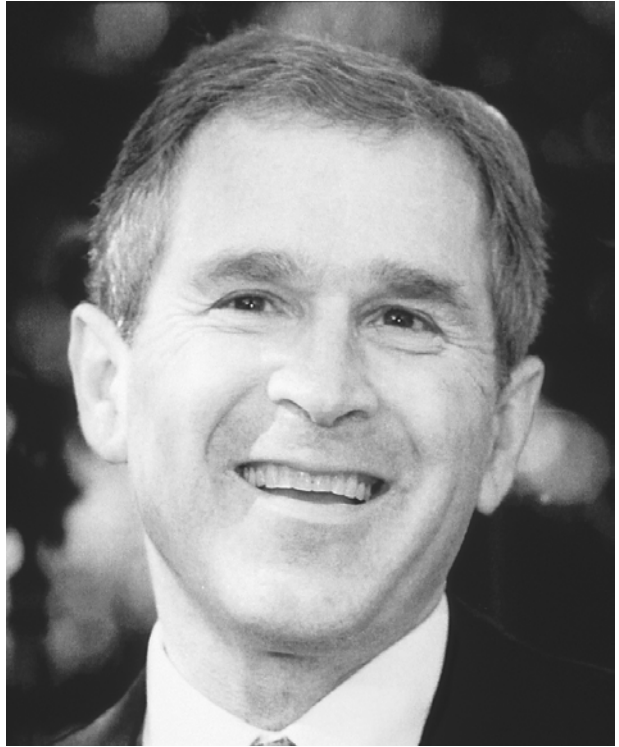
### ***After Yale***

After graduating from Yale in 1968, Bush moved back to Houston where he worked for an agribusiness company (a company that produces farm products and equipment) and for a mentoring program (a program in which people counsel or guide others). But the recent graduate was unfocused. Later, after beginning his political career, questions arose about how he had managed to avoid serving in the Vietnam War (1965–75; a war fought in Vietnam in which the United States supported South Vietnam in its fight against a takeover by North Vietnam). He was a member of a Texas Air National Guard unit stationed at Ellington Air Force Base. The unit included other sons of powerful people. At the time, the National Guard had a long waiting list of young men eager to avoid combat service in Vietnam during the war, but Bush managed to sail through easily.

### ***Texas oilman and the beginning of a political career***

Eventually Bush decided to continue his education. He was not accepted by the University of Texas Law School. Instead, he entered Harvard's Business School. After graduation, he retraced his father's footsteps and returned to Midland, Texas, in 1975 to try his luck in the oil business. Bush's first attempt to strike oil was not successful.

In 1977, after the unsuccessful business venture, Bush became interested in politics



*George W. Bush.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

and suddenly announced that he would run for a seat in the U.S. Congress. At the same time, Bush met Laura Welch; three months later, they were married. Later, they would have twin daughters, Jenna and Barbara. As a candidate for a seat in the U.S. House of Representatives, Bush campaigned as a conservative Republican but lost the close election. Afterwards, Bush turned his focus back to his oil company. By this time, gas prices were falling sharply, and the oil business was not doing well. By the mid-1980s, Bush had left the oil business, but not before selling his stock in the company for nearly \$850,000.

In 1988, Bush worked on his father's presidential campaign, traveling far and wide to raise money and gain support from powerful people. Bush found Washington to be an unwelcoming place, and he returned to Texas after his father won the presidency. In the process, however, he had, he said, "earned his spurs" in his father's eyes. Later, he returned to Washington to work on his father's failed 1992 presidential campaign.

### ***From baseball to the governor's mansion***

Late in 1988, after returning to Texas, Bush put together a group of seventy investors and bought the Texas Rangers, a struggling professional baseball team. Bush quickly emerged as the leader of the investment group. The team soon became successful, and in 1998 the investment group sold the Rangers, earning Bush more than \$14 million. The money would later be used to fund his campaign for president.

When his father lost to Bill Clinton (1946–) in the 1992 presidential race, George W. decided to try for political office once again. His status as the most well-known owner of the Rangers and as the son of a former president gave him an advantage as he campaigned for governor of Texas. He won the 1994 election, defeating incumbent governor Ann Richards.

### ***Governor of Texas***

Famous for making connections, Bush used his management skills in the governor's office, but his political personality still needed some work. He complained that he did not like to read long books and that he hated meetings and briefings. Regardless, Governor

Bush did work hard supporting education reform and public schools.

A key to Bush's popularity in Texas was his ability to appeal to both moderate Republicans and the state's Christian conservatives (people who resist change and prefer to keep traditions), who had come to control the more conservative side of the Republican Party. Bush described himself as a born-again Christian, something that helped him with the conservative voters. He also downplayed issues like his stand against abortion (a woman's right to end a pregnancy) in an attempt to appeal to a wider range of voters. He used that same formula to win the Republican presidential nomination in 2000.

### ***The 2000 presidential campaign***

After winning the Republican nomination, Bush selected Dick Cheney (1941–) as his vice presidential running mate. Cheney had been secretary of defense under Bush's father. Choosing a respected and experienced running mate showed that Bush would surround himself with people who were capable of helping him run the country.

Bush had an early lead, but his opponent, Democratic vice president Al Gore (1948–), bounced back. The media focused on Bush's tendencies to misuse words in speeches. Meanwhile, Gore, an experienced foreign diplomat and two-time vice president, criticized Bush for his weaknesses with foreign policy.

Voting day came and went with no clear winner. Problems with ballots in several counties in Florida prompted ballot recounts. Weeks later, after a five-to-four decision of the U.S. Supreme Court ended

the recounts, Bush finally emerged as the winner.

### ***A president challenged***

Fewer than nine months into office, Bush's leadership skills were tested like no other president before him. On September 11, 2001, terrorists hijacked four U.S. jetliners, crashing one into rural Pennsylvania, another into the Pentagon building outside Washington, D.C., and two into the World Trade Center buildings in New York City. The tragedy, which killed thousands and destroyed the World Trade Center, prompted Bush to announce a "War on Terrorism." The new war became the focus of Bush's presidency.

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## LAURA BUSH

**Born:** November 4, 1946

**Midland, Texas**

*American first lady*

**A** former librarian and elementary-school teacher from Texas, Laura Bush's marriage to President George W. Bush moved her into the national spotlight.

As first lady, she has continued to support the issues that are important to her, including improving education in the United States.

### ***An only child***

Laura Welch Bush was born Laura Welch on November 4, 1946, in Midland, Texas. She was the only child of Harold Welch, a home builder, and Jenna Hawkins Welch, who served as bookkeeper for her husband's business. Her parents encouraged her early love of reading. They attempted several times to have a second child but were not successful; in some cases the siblings survived only for a few days. This situation added to Laura's shyness and eagerness to please. "I felt very obligated to my parents," she told the *New York Times*. "I didn't want to upset them in any way."

After graduating from high school, Laura Welch went on to Southern Methodist University in Dallas, Texas. She earned a bachelor's degree in early education in 1968. She taught in public schools in Texas for a few years before deciding to earn a master's degree in library science from the University of Texas at Austin. She settled in that city after her 1973 graduation and became a librarian for the local public school system.

### ***Marries into a political family***

On a visit back to Midland, Laura Welch was introduced to George Walker Bush (1946–). At the time, George W. Bush owned an oil business. The couple played miniature golf on their first date and were married just three months later, in November 1977. She agreed to the marriage only with the condition that she would never be asked to make a speech for a political campaign. At the time,



Laura Bush.

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George W. Bush's father George H.W. Bush (1924–), was planning to make a bid for the 1980 Republican presidential nomination.

Laura Bush quit working when she married but took college literature courses. She and her husband had twin daughters, named Barbara and Jenna in honor of their grandmothers. In time, her husband decided to enter politics, and Laura Bush became the wife of the Texas governor in 1995. In spite of her shyness, the new role forced her to become a more public person. She was finally convinced to make speeches, and over the next few years she developed a greater degree of confidence in her ability to speak in pub-

lic. As the state's first lady, she took up literacy (the ability to read and write) and breast cancer awareness as her causes, raising nearly one million dollars for the state's public libraries. She is also credited with convincing her husband to give up drinking, which he did after she expressed concern that his habits were becoming harmful to his health and their family life.

### *Becomes first lady*

When her husband decided to become a candidate in the 2000 Republican presidential election, as she told another *New York Times* reporter, Richard L. Berke, their teenage daughters were not enthusiastic. "They didn't want him to run, because they wanted to be perfectly private teenagers like every teenager," Laura Bush said. She may have also wished for a more private life, but as she said, "I would never say to George, for something that he really wanted to do, that he couldn't do that."

While campaigning for her husband, Laura Bush managed to make a favorable impression while saying little. She delivered the first major speech at the Republican National Convention in Philadelphia in July 2000. In this speech she discussed her husband's promise to improve early childhood development programs and increase funding for teacher training. She also talked about the home they were building in Texas in which they planned to host the next generation of Bush children. "One day, God willing, George will be a fabulous grandfather. In the meantime, he'll make a great president," she said in conclusion. Bush went on to win one of the closest presidential elections in history, and he took office in January 2001.

Although she planned to keep a fairly low profile during her husband's term, Laura Bush was forced to change her plans after terrorists attacked the United States on September 11, 2001. She provided comfort for the country as it mourned the victims and worked to rebuild after the attacks. She became an even greater source of support for her husband as he worked to find and punish those responsible and ensure that such a thing would never happen again.

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## LORD BYRON

**Born:** January 22, 1788

**London, England**

**Died:** April 19, 1824

**Missolonghi, Greece**

*English poet*

The English poet Lord Byron was one of the most important figures of the Romantic Movement (1785–1830; a period when English literature was full of virtuous heroes and themes of love and triumph). Because of his works, active life, and physical beauty he came to be considered the perfect image of the romantic poet-hero.

### **His beginnings**

George Gordon Noel Byron, sixth Baron Byron, was born on January 22, 1788, into a

family of fast-decaying nobility. Captain “Mad Jack” Byron was a “gold digger,” marrying Catherine Gordon chiefly for her annual income. After spending most of her money and fathering George, he died in 1791. George was left with an unbalanced mother, the contempt of his aristocratic relatives for the poor widow and her son, and a birth defect necessitating that he walk on the balls and toes of his feet for the rest of his life. All this worked together to hurt the boy's pride and sensitivity. This created in him a need for self-assertion, which he soon sought to gratify in three main directions: love, poetry, and action.

Despite the awkward way he walked and the numerous “remedies” that Byron suffered through, his boyhood was full of play and mischief. His favorite activities were riding and swimming, both sports where he was physically able. But he willingly played cricket, appointing a schoolmate to run for him. At eight years old he fell hopelessly in love with a cousin. At sixteen when he heard of her engagement he reportedly was physically ill. Though said by most of his peers and teachers to have been a genius, Byron was half-hearted in his schoolwork. But he read constantly. He had a strong appetite for information and a remarkable memory. Nevertheless his biography reports Byron as having been the ringleader of numerous school revolts. He spoke of his school friends as “passions.”

On the death of his granduncle in 1798, Byron inherited the title and estate. After four years at Harrow (1801–1805), he went to Trinity College, Cambridge, where he became conscious for the first time of the difference between the high goals of idealism (romanticism) and the less important realities of experience. His quest for some genuine passion





Lord Byron.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

among the frail women of his world accounts for the crowded catalog of his love affairs.

### Early works

In 1807 Byron published his first book of poetry, *Hours of Idleness*. In the preface he apologized, “for obtruding [forcing] myself on the world, when, without doubt, I might be at my age, more usefully employed.” The book was harshly criticized by the *Edinburgh Review*. Byron counterattacked in *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers* (1809), the first manifestation (sign) of a gift for satire (making fun of human weaknesses) and a sarcastic wit (making fun of someone or something in a harsh way by say-

ing the opposite of what is meant), which singled him out among the major English romantics, and which he may have owed to his aristocratic outlook and his classical education.

In 1809 a two-year trip to the Mediterranean countries provided material for the first two cantos (the main divisions of long poems) of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*. Their publication in 1812 earned Byron instant glory. They combined the more popular features of the late-eighteenth-century romanticism: colorful descriptions of exotic nature, disillusioned meditations on the vanity of earthly things, a lyrical exaltation of freedom, and above all, the new hero, handsome and lonely, yet strongly impassioned even for all of his weariness with life.

### Social life

While his fame was spreading, Byron was busy shocking London high society. After his affairs with Lady Caroline Lamb and Lady Oxford, his incestuous (a sexual relationship between close relatives) love for his half sister Augusta not only made him a reprobate (a person who is completely without morals), but also strengthened the sense of guilt and doom that he had always felt. From then on the theme of incest was to figure strongly in his writings, starting with the epic tales (long poems that tell stories) that he published between 1812 and 1816: *The Giaour*, *The Bride of Abydos*, *The Corsair*, *Lara*, *The Siege of Corinth*, and *Parisina*. According to Byron, incestuous love, criminal although genuine and irresistible, was a suitable metaphor (symbol) for the tragic condition of man, who is cursed by God, rebuked (judged harshly) by society, and hated by himself because of sins for which he is not

responsible. The tales, therefore, add a new dimension of depth to the Byronic hero: in his total alienation (separation from one's surroundings) he now actively takes on the tragic fatality that turns natural instinct into unforgivable sin, and he deliberately takes his rebellious stand as an outcast against all accepted beliefs of the right order of things.

While thus seeking relief in imaginative exploration of his own tortured mind, Byron had been half hoping to find peace and reconciliation in a more settled life. His marriage to Anna Isabella Milbanke (January 1, 1815) soon proved a complete failure. She left him after a year. London society could have ignored the peculiarities of Byron's private life, but a satire against the Prince Regent, "Stanzas to a Lady Weeping," which he had appended (added on) to *The Corsair*, brought about an outpouring of criticism from the Tories (a political party in England that was loyal to the English monarchy). In their hands Byron's separation from his wife became an efficient weapon. On April 25, 1816, Byron had to leave his native country, never to return.

### **His travels**

In Switzerland Byron spent several months in the company of the poet Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822). Under Shelley's influence he read William Wordsworth (1770–1850) and immersed himself in the unpleasant spirituality that permeated the third canto of *Childe Harold*. But *The Prisoner of Chillon* and Byron's first drama, *Manfred*, took the Byronic hero to a new level of inwardness: his greatness now lay in the

refusal to bow to the hostile powers that oppressed him, whether he discovered new selfhood in his very dereliction (negligence) or sought the fulfillment of his assertiveness in self-destruction.

In October 1816 Byron left for Italy and settled in Venice. His compositions of 1817, however, show signs of a new outlook. Spontaneous maturation (growing up) had thus paved the way for the healing influence of Teresa Guiccioli, Byron's last love. The poet had at last begun to come to terms with his desperate idea of life.

It is characteristic of Byron's strength of character that he increasingly sought to translate his ideas into action, repeatedly voicing the more radical Whig (a political party in England that supported reform in government and society) viewpoint in the House of Lords in 1812–1813. He also ran real risks to help the Italian Carbonari (a secret group in Italy that worked for a representative government based on a constitution) in 1820–1821. His early poetry had contributed to sensitizing the European mind to the struggle of Greece under Turkish rule. In 1824 Byron joined the Greek freedom fighters at Missolonghi, Greece, where he died of fever on April 19.

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## JULIUS CAESAR

**Born:** July 12, 100 B.C.E.

**Rome**

**Died:** March 15, 44 B.C.E.

**Rome**

*Roman general and politician*

**J**ulius Caesar was a Roman general and politician who overthrew the Roman Republic and established the rule of the emperors. Caesar used the problems and hardships of the period to create his own supreme political and military power. Roman Emperor Julius Caesar is regarded as one of the most

powerful and successful leaders in the history of the world. His life and his violent death have been widely celebrated in literature and film.

### *Young Caesar*

Gaius Julius Caesar was born on July 12, 100 B.C.E. to Gaius Caesar and Aurelia. His father had gained moderate political success and the family claimed a long and noble history, which therefore entitled Caesar's family to certain traditional privileges and offices. Caesar received the classic education of a young Roman at Rome and in Rhodes. Cicero (106–43 B.C.E.), a Roman statesman and philosopher, considered Caesar one of the most cultured and literate of Romans. Caesar served as a young officer in Asia Minor and



Julius Caesar.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

was *quaestor* (financial official) in Farther Spain (69 B.C.E.).

Caesar's first important political success came in 63 B.C.E., when he was elected *pontifex maximus*, the chief religious office in Rome that carried important political possibilities. Caesar was then elected *praetor* (an elected Roman official) for 62 B.C.E. and served his propraetorship in Spain. Caesar was quick to take advantage of his power by waging a successful campaign against some native tribes in Lusitania, a Roman province in western Europe. Meanwhile, his political enemies accused him of provoking, or starting, the war.

### First Triumvirate

In 59 B.C.E. Caesar won an election to become consul, or an official ruling over foreign lands. The Senate, immediately moving to block his hopes of future political power, assigned him to lands that offered Caesar no possibilities for military glory. Caesar, who desired more glamorous political and military opportunities, saw that he needed allies to overcome his opponents in the Senate.

Caesar soon found the alliance that would become known as the First Triumvirate. He aligned himself with the Roman General Pompey (106–48 B.C.E.), who brought wealth and military might, and Crassus (140–91 B.C.E.), a powerful Roman politician who brought important political connections. The alliance was further sealed in 58 B.C.E. with the marriage of Caesar's only daughter, Julia, to Pompey.

### Revolt in Gaul

Caesar was awarded the governorship of Gaul, a Roman province occupied by several tribes. While Roman control in Gaul was limited, Rome did have political relations with tribes beyond the actual border of the province. Caesar quickly took advantage of these connections and the shifting power position in Gaul to extend the realm of Roman control.

Caesar decided to undertake an expedition against Britain, whose tribes maintained close contacts with Gaul. These expeditions in 55 and 54 B.C.E. created great enthusiasm in Rome, as for the first time Roman arms had advanced overseas to conquer new peoples. Caesar probably thought that his main task of conquest was complete. In 52 B.C.E.,

however, Gaul rose in widespread rebellion against Caesar under Vercingetorix, a nobleman of the tribe of the Arverni. This revolt greatly threatened Caesar's power base.

At the same time, the political situation in Rome was equally chaotic. The tribune (Roman official) Clodius had been murdered, and his death was followed by great disorder in Rome. Caesar had crossed the Alps to watch the changing conditions in Rome. When the news of revolt in Gaul reached him, he recrossed the Alps and rallied his divided army. Caesar's forces lost several battles to Vercingetorix and the Arverni. Vercingetorix made the mistake of taking refuge in the fortress of Alesia, however. Caesar used the best of Roman siege techniques and encircled the fortress to capture the enemy. Soon Vercingetorix was forced to surrender.

### *Dissolving the Triumvirate*

Caesar's long absence from Rome had partially weakened his political power. At the same time Caesar's conquests were well publicized. His *Commentaries*, which described the campaigns, circulated among the reading public in Rome. Caesar sought to place his conquests in the best possible light, and the *Commentaries* stressed the importance of defending the friends and allies of Rome against traditional Roman enemies. He had made vast additions to the Roman Empire (about 640,000 square miles) at the expense of peoples who had long been enemies of Rome.

Pompey, on the other hand, had remained in Rome and strengthened his political position by appearing as a leader in a time of chaos. Other tensions in the alliance came with Julia's death in 54 B.C.E., which

removed an important bond between the two men. The death of Crassus in 53 B.C.E. further weakened the relationship between Pompey and Caesar.

### *Civil war*

When Caesar returned to Rome in 50 B.C.E., the Senate looked to put him on trial for acts he committed while acting as consul. Caesar now had two choices: he could bow to the will of the Senate and be destroyed politically, or he could start a civil war. Caesar chose war.

At the beginning the greater power seemed to rest with Pompey and the Senate, as Pompey had powerful resources with which to draw support against Caesar. However, Caesar had at his command a tough, loyal, and experienced army, as well as an extensive following in Italy. Most of all, he was fighting for his own interests alone and did not have to face the divisions of interest, opinion, and leadership that plagued Pompey.

Pompey quickly decided to abandon Italy to Caesar and fell back to the East. Caesar secured his position in Italy and Gaul and then defeated Pompey at Pharsalus on Aug. 9, 48 B.C.E. Pompey fled to Egypt and was killed by the young pharaoh (king) Ptolemy (63–47 B.C.E.).

Caesar followed Pompey to Egypt and became involved in the struggle for power in the house of Ptolemy, a family in Egypt that ruled for generations. The main result of his time in Egypt was the affair that developed between Caesar and Cleopatra (51–30 B.C.E.), Ptolemy's sister and joint ruler of Egypt. She would later give birth to Caesar's son, Caesarion.

### *Consolidation of the empire*

Although his rival was eliminated, much work remained to make Caesar's position secure. He adopted a policy of special clemency, or mercy, toward his former enemies and rewarded political opponents with public office. For himself he adopted the old Roman position of dictator, a ruler with absolute power.

There has been much debate about what political role Caesar planned for himself. He certainly thought the old government was weak and desired to replace it with some form of rule by a single leader. Just before his death, Caesar was appointed dictator for life. About the same time, he began issuing coins with his portrait on them, something never before practiced in Rome up to that time. Caesar was planning major improvements to transform the capital of the empire he commanded. New colonial foundations were under way, and he reordered the defective Roman calendar.

### *Death and legacy*

In Rome dissatisfaction was growing in the Senate over the increasingly permanent nature of Caesar's rule. A conspiracy (secret plan) was formed to remove Caesar and restore the government to the Senate. The conspirators hoped that, with Caesar's death, government would be restored to its old republican form and all of the factors that had produced Caesar would disappear. The conspiracy progressed with Caesar either ignorant of it or not recognizing the warning signs. On the Ides of March (March 15), 44 B.C.E., he was stabbed to death in the Senate house of Pompey by a group of men that included old friends and allies.

With Caesar's murder, Rome plunged into thirteen years of civil war. Caesar remained for some a symbol of an over-dominant leader, and for others the founder of the Roman Empire whose ghost has haunted Europe ever since. For all, he is a figure of genius and courage equaled by few in history.

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## CALIGULA

**Born:** August 31, 12 C.E.

**Antium, Italy**

**Died:** January 24, 41 C.E.

**Rome, Italy**

*Italian emperor*

**C**aligula (12–41 C.E.) was the third emperor of Rome. During his short reign, Caligula emerged as one of the most dominant leaders of Rome's early emperors. But his insanity, coupled with his power as Emperor of Rome, would secure him a most unusual legacy.

### *Early life*

Caligula was born Gaius Julius Caesar Germanicus in Antium (modern Anzio) on August 31, 12 C.E. His mother, Agrippina,

was the granddaughter of Emperor Augustus (63 B.C.E.–14 C.E.). Caligula's father, Germanicus, was Emperor Tiberius's (42 B.C.E.–37 B.C.E.) nephew, adopted son, and heir who would inherit his father's throne. Gaius was brought up among the soldiers his father commanded on the Rhine, a river in central Europe. His mother dressed the young boy in the uniform of a Roman soldier, and for this reason the soldiers called him Caligula ("Little Boots"), the name by which he is commonly known.

In 41 C.E. Augustus died, leaving Tiberius to inherit the role of emperor. Tiberius hesitated at naming a successor. Although Caligula's father was the best candidate, Tiberius was jealous of him and kept Germanicus away from Rome for several years. In 19 C.E. Germanicus died under mysterious circumstances. His death was mourned throughout the empire, because he was, by all accounts, an honorable and courageous man. After his father's death Caligula lived in Rome, first with his mother, then with Livia (Augustus's wife), and then with his grandmother. Finally, in 32 C.E., he joined Tiberius in his retirement on the island of Capri.

By this time Tiberius had groomed his two sons, Nero and Drusus, to succeed him as emperor. But by 33 C.E., Nero and Drusus had died, leaving Caligula next in line to succeed Tiberius. Caligula held public office in 31 and 33 C.E. but, apart from that brief experience, had no other training for political life. Caligula's experience at Tiberius's court seems largely to have been in the art of hiding what his biographer Suetonius (c. 69–122 C.E.) called his "natural cruelty and viciousness."



*Caligula.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

### **Emperor Caligula**

Tiberius died in 37 C.E., and in March Caligula took the throne as emperor. During the first months of his reign he dissolved the legacies Tiberius and Livia left to the Roman people. The new emperor was generous. He freed political prisoners and established popular and splendid games and chariot races. He was respectful to the Senate and adopted his cousin Tiberius Gemellus as his son and heir. Caligula also recalled political exiles, or people who had been forced to leave Rome during the reigns of previous emperors.

But by the spring of 38 C.E. the character of Caligula's rule changed drastically. An ill-

ness late in 37 C.E. seemed to have seriously affected his mind. Suetonius claims that, after the illness, Caligula submitted completely to the role of Oriental despot, or absolute ruler. He soon regarded himself as a god. Personal altars to himself were built all over his empire.

In all things he became irrational and cruel. He murdered, among others, Tiberius Gemellus, humiliated the Senate, and spent money recklessly. He revived treason trials so that he could confiscate the property of the convicted. Caligula's behavior included building a bridge that crossed between his palace and nearby temples so he could communicate with the gods. Also, he appointed his favorite horse as high priest. Caligula spent the winter of 39 and 40 C.E. in Gaul and on the Rhine and planned to invade Germany or Britain. His plans aroused some patriotic support, but the project was soon abandoned.

After his return to Rome, Caligula lived in constant fear of an assassination (an organized murder). His fear was realized when a tribune, or group of Roman officials, of the Praetorian Guards murdered him on Jan. 24, 41 C.E. His fourth wife and his daughter, who was his only child, were murdered at the same time.

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## MARIA CALLAS

**Born:** December 3, 1923

**New York, New York**

**Died:** September 16, 1977

**Paris, France**

*American opera singer*

M aria Callas was one of the great coloratura sopranos (female vocalists who specialize in an elaborate form of opera singing) of the twentieth century. She revitalized opera and increased its appeal because of her dramatic skill.

#### **Childhood in America**

By most accounts Maria Callas was born Maria Kalogeropoulos in New York City, New York, on December 3, 1923, just four months after her parents, George and Evangelia (Litza) Kalogeropoulos, arrived in New York harbor after moving from Greece. Callas was formally baptized Cecilia Sophia Anna Maria. It was around the time of her birth that her father shortened the family name to Callas. By the time she started school, Maria Kalogeropoulos was known as Maria Callas.

At age seven Callas began her musical studies by taking piano lessons. She loved opera music even as a youngster, and she had a beautiful voice. She especially loved to sing *La Paloma*. She took great comfort in listening to the many opera records in her family's collection. Young Callas soon discovered that she had a natural talent and a flair for the dramatic. She won several amateur talent contests while she was in elementary school,



and she was a popular performer on children's radio shows.

When Callas graduated from the eighth grade in 1937, her mother decided to return to Greece in order for Callas to receive voice training in the classical tradition. She was a dedicated student, driven by a spirit of excellence. Callas's teachers, and later her directors and producers, were continually amazed at her exceptional memory. She easily learned music and lyrics in a matter of days, where others would require weeks or months.

### ***Finds success in Italy***

After World War II (1939–45; when Germany, Italy, and Japan clashed with European and American forces), her music coach, Elvira de Hidalgo, encouraged Callas to move to Italy to establish her career. Her Italian debut, held on August 3, 1947, was a performance of *La Gioconda* at the Verona Arena. She went on to perform *Tristan and Isolde* and *Turandot* in Venice, Italy, in 1948. She sang the title role in Bellini's *Norma*, her most popular role, for the first time in Florence, Italy, in 1948. Critics took note, and her career began to soar.

Almost immediately upon her arrival in Verona, Italy, in 1947 she married Giovanni Battista Meneghini, a wealthy Veronian industrialist. Meneghini withdrew from his business interests to manage Callas's promising career, and generally devoted his life to fulfilling her every need. During the late 1940s and 1950s Callas toured Argentina, Mexico, and Brazil. She worked with famed Maestro Tullio Serafin, as well as noted directors Franco Zeffirelli (1923–), Francesco Siciliani, and Luchino Visconti.



Maria Callas.

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### ***Finds fame in America***

Callas's United States debut was at the Lyric Opera of Chicago (Illinois) in 1954. On October 19, 1956, she debuted at the New York Metropolitan Opera (the Met), where she performed in *Norma*. Coinciding with her Metropolitan Opera debut, Callas was featured on the October 27, 1956, cover of *Time*.

During the peak of Callas's career she easily fit the stereotype (an oversimplified version) of a portly and highly emotional opera singer, but in 1952 she experienced a dramatic weight loss. By 1954 she was sixty-five pounds lighter. She continued to perform, and her career exploded into greatness.

She added new operas, including *Madame Butterfly*, which she had previously avoided because she felt awkward and ungraceful.

### *The years of decline*

During the late 1950s the vocalist's personal life began to deteriorate, and this tragically affected her career. She had an affair with powerful businessman Aristotle Onassis (c. 1900–1975), and she and her husband separated in 1959, divorcing finally in 1971. Onassis eventually divorced his wife, Tina, but married Jacqueline Kennedy (1929–1994), widow of the late president John F. Kennedy (1917–1963), though he also remained involved with Callas.

The intrigues of Callas's personal life soon overshadowed her professional life. The stresses of jet-set living, as well as the strain she had put on her voice throughout her career, began to take their toll. A series of high-profile cancellations continued her downward spiral. Although she returned briefly to perform at the Met between 1964 and 1965, she never resurfaced as the great talent of her youth.

Callas died unexpectedly in Paris, France, on September 16, 1977, shortly before her fifty-fifth birthday. Just as no record exists of Callas's birth, her death also remains shrouded in mystery, the cause of her death never fully explained.

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## CAB CALLOWAY

**Born:** December 25, 1907

**Rochester, New York**

**Died:** November 18, 1994

**Hockessin, Delaware**

*African American singer, songwriter,  
and bandleader*

**B**est known for the song "Minnie the Moocher," Cab Calloway was a famous singer and bandleader beginning in the 1920s, and he remained active in music throughout his golden years.

### *Early years*

Cabell Calloway III was born on December 25, 1907, in Rochester, New York, the second of Cabell and Eulalia Reed Calloway's six children. When he was six his family moved to Baltimore, Maryland, where his father practiced law and sold real estate. Young Cab enjoyed singing in church, but he was expected to follow in his father's footsteps and study law. Except, his older sister Blanche had found work singing with a show in Chicago, Illinois, and after graduating from high school Calloway appealed to her for advice. She sent him a train ticket, and when he arrived in Chicago she gave him acting lessons and found him a job as a singer. He attended Crane College briefly, but he was committed to show business.

### *Popular bandleader*

By 1925 Calloway was working as a drummer with the Sunset Cafe band in Chicago. By his twentieth birthday he had

organized his own orchestra and was singing lead vocals again. The group, Cab Calloway and his Alabamians, became popular in Chicago, and eventually was hired to play at the Savoy Ballroom in New York City. That engagement did not go well, and Calloway dissolved the band. He was about to return to Chicago when he landed a part in a Broadway comedy, *Connie's Hot Chocolates*, in which Calloway was praised for his rendition of "Ain't Misbehavin'."

After Broadway manager Irving Mills encouraged Calloway to form another band, Calloway put together another orchestra and immediately found work in New York night-clubs. In 1929 he was invited to fill in for Duke Ellington (1899–1974) at the Cotton Club, and for the next decade the two band-leaders played alternating engagements at the famous venue. It was during his Cotton Club years that Calloway developed his crisp, jazzy song-and-dance style.

Calloway was one of the first performers to purposely use scat singing, or random use of nonsense syllables. As with so many others, he began scat singing when he forgot a song's lyrics. Audiences loved the sound, however, so he began to write tunes with scat choruses. Calloway's trademark song "Minnie the Moocher" is one such composition. Its refrain—"hi de hi de hi de ho"—invites the audience to sing along. Recordings of "Minnie the Moocher" have sold millions of copies worldwide.

#### ***Musician, actor, author***

Calloway was very popular in the 1930s and 1940s. He appeared in such films as *International House* and *Stormy Weather*. He helped to popularize the jitterbug with songs



*Cab Calloway.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

like "Jumpin' Jive," "Reefer Man," and "It Ain't Necessarily So." He even wrote a book, *Hepster's Dictionary*, which sold two million copies. Although Calloway is not always associated with the big-band era, he worked with many brilliant musicians who were attracted by the top salaries he was able to pay.

During World War II (1939–45) Calloway entertained troops in the United States and Canada. After the war he returned to club work and to Broadway, most notably as the character of Sportin' Life in *Porgy and Bess*. In the 1960s he took another Broadway role, that of Horace Vandergelder in the all-black ver-

sion of *Hello, Dolly!* His work with Pearl Bailey (1918–1990) was the highlight of a long friendship—he had helped Bailey get a start in show business in 1945.

### **Popular in his eighties**

Calloway's appearance in the 1980 film *The Blues Brothers* gave him the opportunity to perform "Minnie the Moocher" for an audience young enough to be his grandchildren. Dressed in a white suit with tails, he made the song the highlight of the film. Critics praised Calloway, and his popularity soared. Calloway continued to perform into his eighties, sometimes joined by his daughter Chris. The *Philadelphia Inquirer* observed that "his moves have slowed a bit since the '30s.... But every bit of his voice is still there—and every bit of the style and grace that made the legend."

Cab Calloway died in November 1994, five months after suffering a stroke. He was survived by his wife, Nuffie, whom he married in 1953. When once asked if he had any heroes in the music business, Calloway scoffed at the very idea. "I'll tell you who my heroes are," he said. "My heroes are the notes, man. The music itself. You understand what I'm saying? I love the music. The music is my hero."

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## JOHN CALVIN

**Born:** July 10, 1509

Noyon, Picardy, France

**Died:** May 27, 1564

Geneva, Switzerland

*French religious leader and reformer*

**T**he French religious reformer John Calvin created a strict version of Protestantism, which originally arose in opposition to the Catholic Church. He is known for his belief in predestination (meaning God has already chosen who will and will not be saved) and his view of the state as enforcer of church laws.

### **Early life**

John Calvin was born at Noyon in Picardy, France, on July 10, 1509. He was the second son of Gérard Cauvin, who was secretary to the bishop of Noyon. It was decided early in his life that Calvin would serve the Catholic Church, and at the age of twelve he became a chaplain at the Cathedral of Noyon. In August 1523 he went to Paris, France, and entered the Collège de la Marche at the University of Paris, where he soon became skilled in Latin. He then attended the Collège de Montaigu until 1528. Then, at the suggestion of his father, he moved to Orléans, France, to study law.

In 1531 Calvin returned to Paris with his law degree. At this time Protestant opposition to the church was growing. The ideas of Martin Luther (1483–1546) concerning the saving of one's soul by faith alone were becoming popular in the city, and Calvin

became involved in the movement for church reform. In January 1534 he fled Paris during a crackdown on Protestants and went to Angoulême, France, where he began writing down a full description of his beliefs. After several trips back to Paris he finally settled in Basel, Switzerland.

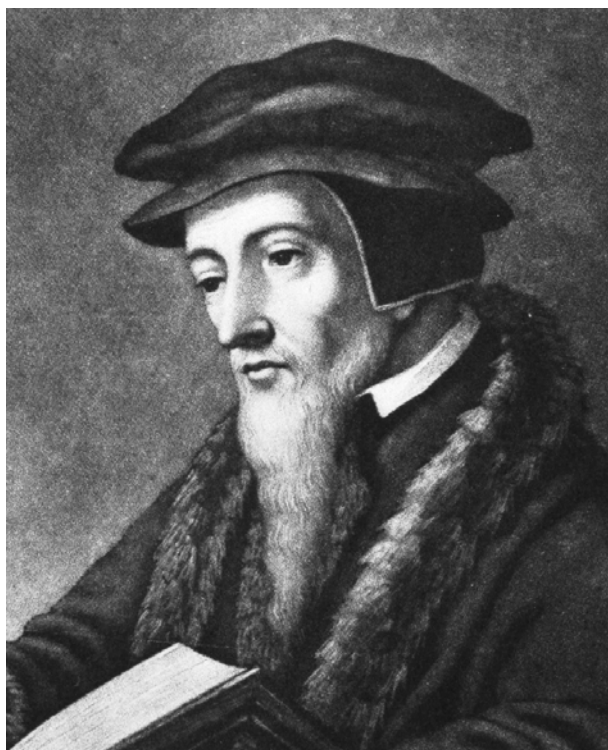
### ***Calvin's ideas***

In 1536 Calvin expressed his new beliefs in the most famous book on Protestantism ever, the *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, which he continued to work on until his death. The book's theme is the majesty of God and the worthlessness of man. God has predestined (decided in advance) who will be granted eternal glory or suffer eternal damnation, and man can do nothing to change this decision. Calvin was not the creator of this idea, but no one ever expressed it more clearly.

Calvin also advised people to pray, saying men must worship even though they may have no chance to be saved. The prayer should be simple, and all fancy ceremony should be rejected. Calvin said that Christ is present whenever believers gather in prayer, and that priests have no special powers. He also stated that there was no separation of Church and state; both must work together to preserve the word of God, and the state was allowed to use force if necessary against those engaging in false teachings.

### ***Geneva reformer***

After returning briefly to France in 1536, Calvin left his homeland permanently. Traveling through Geneva, Switzerland, he met Guillaume Farel, a Protestant who asked him to stick around. In 1537 the city fathers



*John Calvin.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

in Geneva elected Calvin to the preaching office. A council operating as the government soon banned Catholicism and all immoral behavior. In 1538 a combination of Libertines (freedom lovers) and Catholics, opposed to the new rules, took control of the council. Calvin was banished and went to Strasbourg, France, where he married Idelette de Bure in 1540. Their only child died in infancy. Things went badly in Geneva after Calvin left. Disgusted with the behavior of the people, the council asked Calvin to return in 1541, promising total cooperation in restoring order.

Back in Geneva, Calvin went right to work organizing the Reformed church. In

1542 the council approved his new regulations. The ministry was divided into pastors, teachers, lay (nonreligious) elders, and deacons. The pastors governed the Church, and their permission was required to preach in Geneva. To control public behavior, an elected group of pastors and elders were given the right to search people's homes; to banish anyone from the city; to force attendance at weekly sermons; and to ban gambling, drinking, dancing, and immodest dress. Criticism of Calvin or other church officials was forbidden, as were immoral writings and books about Catholicism. Punishment for first offenses was usually a fine. Repeat offenders were banished, and extreme offenses carried the death penalty. From 1541 until Calvin's death fifty-eight people were executed and seventy-six were banished in order to preserve morals and order.

### ***Last years***

Calvin's last years were spent criticizing his enemies and updating Geneva's laws and the *Institutes*. Geneva became a model of order and cleanliness and was admired by visitors. Men trained by Calvin carried his ideas all over Europe. He lived to see his following grow in the Netherlands, Scotland, Germany, and even France. On May 27, 1564, Calvin died after a long illness, having left a huge mark on the Christian world.

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## BEN NIGHTHORSE CAMPBELL

**Born:** April 13, 1933

**Auburn, California**

*Native American senator and congressman*

As a result of his election on November 3, 1992, Ben Nighthorse Campbell of Colorado became the first Native American to serve in the U.S. Senate in more than sixty years. A member of the Northern Cheyenne tribe, Campbell was also a world-famous athlete and was captain of the U.S. judo team for the 1964 Olympics in Tokyo, Japan.

### ***A troubled youth***

Ben Campbell (he added "Nighthorse" as an adult) was born in Auburn, California, on April 13, 1933, to Mary Vierra, a Portuguese immigrant, and Albert Campbell, a member of the Northern Cheyenne tribe. He had a hard childhood with a mother frequently hospitalized for tuberculosis, an infectious disease that affects the lungs. Campbell's father was an alcoholic who failed to support the family, and his mother was often too sick to take care of and support the children. At such times she placed Campbell and his younger sister, Alberta, in the care of an orphanage. Indeed, by the time he turned ten years old Nighthorse had

spent half of his life in St. Patrick's Catholic Orphanage in Sacramento, California.

With little supervision at home, the youngster spent much of his time in the streets getting into trouble. He was frequently absent from high school, earning mostly poor grades. While still a teenager he was involved in such activities as stealing guns and cars, shoplifting, and driving drunk. At age fifteen he was arrested for stealing gasoline. A year later he was arrested and briefly jailed for driving drunk and crashing into a gas station. The police released him back into the custody of his parents.

Life began to change as Campbell learned a new skill. While working as a fruit picker in California's Sacramento Valley, he became friends with some Japanese youths who taught him judo. That sport, according to the senator, "kept me off the streets and out of jail." After leaving high school, he served in the U.S. Air Force from 1951 to 1953 during the Korean War (1950–53), a war in Korea in which the United States joined South Korea in its fight against Communist North Korea. Campbell was stationed in Korea, where he gained the military rank of Airman, Second Class. He studied to receive his high school equivalency diploma and continued with his judo training. Studying with Korean judo instructors during times when he was not on military duty, Campbell earned a brown belt in the sport.

### *From judo to jewelry*

After finishing his military service, Campbell entered San Jose State University and supported himself by picking fruit and driving a truck. As a senator Campbell remembered this early work experience and



*Ben Nighthorse Campbell.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

was still a member of the Teamsters labor union (which includes truckers) who proudly displayed his union membership card. In 1957 he received a bachelor's degree in physical education and fine arts. Upon graduation he moved to Tokyo for four years to work on his judo and study at Meiji University.

Campbell's ability in judo won him All American status in that sport and helped him become a three-time U.S. judo champion. He won the gold medal in the Pan-American Games in 1963 and served as captain of the U.S. judo team at the Tokyo Olympics the next year. Later he coached the U.S. international judo team.

Although Campbell worked many jobs, ranging from farm laborer to policeman, he found financial success as a designer of Native American jewelry. He had been interested in this Native American art form since his childhood, but in Japan he learned how to laminate different metals, a technique that involves beating, splitting, or layering metals in thin sheets. Although jewelry makers who used more traditional methods said that this technique did not follow the style of Native American art, others recognized Campbell as an important artist creating new artistic forms. He won more than two hundred design awards for his handmade rings, bracelets, and pendants. Some of his work has sold for as much as twenty thousand dollars. By 1977 Campbell's success had allowed him to move to a 120-acre ranch on the Southern Ute Indian Reservation near Ignacio, Colorado. There he trained champion quarter horses until an injury forced him to stop.

### *Beginnings of political career*

Campbell's involvement in politics came about because of bad weather. Unable to fly his single-engine airplane to the West Coast to deliver some jewelry because of heavy storms, he visited a meeting of Colorado Democrats who were seeking a candidate for the state's Fifty-ninth House District. At that meeting Democratic leaders persuaded Campbell to run for that office. To nearly everyone's surprise he defeated his better-known opponent and served in the state legislature for four years. In 1986 voters of Colorado's Third Congressional District elected Campbell as a Democrat to the U.S. House of Representatives after a closely fought election. With this victory Campbell became

only the eighth Native American ever elected to Congress. He won reelection to this seat three times.

In Congress Campbell earned a reputation for having a "straightshooting approach." His charm, sincerity, leadership qualities, and mix of political beliefs helped him gain support from a wide variety of groups within and outside of Congress. Although he was a strong conservative in areas of financial management (he supported an amendment to the U.S. Constitution that would require a balanced budget), he was a liberal on social issues. His stand on abortion (the purposeful termination of a pregnancy), for example, is strongly prochoice, or in favor of a woman's right to choose to have an abortion. He played an important role in gaining laws to settle disputes involving Native American water rights. In 1991 he won a fight to change the name of Custer Battlefield Monument in Montana to the Little Bighorn Battlefield National Monument, in honor of the Native Americans who died there in 1876 in battle against the troops of General George Custer (1839–1876). Campbell was also instrumental in establishing the National Museum of the American Indian within the Smithsonian Institution.

### *Campbell as senator*

After six years in the House of Representatives, Campbell decided to run for the Senate seat vacated by Tim Wirth (1939–), a liberal Democrat who decided not to run for a second term. He defeated Josie Heath and former governor Dick Lamm (1935–) in the Democratic primary. On November 3, 1992, he beat the conservative Republican state senator Terry Considine for the Senate. As a



Democratic senator he almost always supported the programs of the Clinton administration (1993–2001).

On March 3, 1995, Campbell made a decision that shocked much of the political world. He decided to move from the Democratic Party to the Republican Party. It has been stated that the balanced-budget amendment persuaded Campbell to change his political views. Campbell served the remainder of his first six-year term as a Republican and was reelected for a second term in 1998, after running as a Republican.

### For More Information

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## ALBERT CAMUS

**Born:** November 7, 1913

**Mondovi, Algeria**

**Died:** January 4, 1960

**Paris, France**

*French novelist, essayist, and playwright*

The French novelist, essayist, and playwright Albert Camus was the literary spokesman for his generation. His obsession with the philosophical problems of the meaning of life and man's search for value made him well loved by readers, resulting in his award of the Nobel Prize in Literature at the age of forty-four.

### Childhood

Albert Camus was born on November 7, 1913, in Mondovi, Algeria, then part of France. His French father was killed in World War I (1914–18; a war that involved many European countries, such as Russia, the United States, and areas of the Middle East) when Albert was just one year old. His mother, of Spanish origin, was able to provide a small income and home in a needy neighborhood of Algiers, Algeria, through unskilled labor. His childhood was one of poverty and of sunshine. Life in Algeria left Camus feeling rich because of the temperate climate. Camus said, "I lived in destitution but also in a kind of sensual delight." His Spanish heritage provided him with a self-respect in poverty and a passion for honor. Camus started writing at an early age.

His schooling was completed only with help from scholarships. At the University of Algiers, he was a brilliant student of philosophy (the study of value and meaning in life), focusing on the comparison of Hellenism (ideals associated with Ancient Greece) and Christianity. Camus is described as both a physical and mental athlete. While still a student, he founded a theater and both directed and acted in plays. At seventeen he contracted tuberculosis (a disease that mainly affects the lungs), which kept him from further sports, the military, and teaching jobs. Camus worked at various jobs before becoming a journalist in 1938. His first published works were *L'Envers et l'endroit* (1937; *The Wrong Side and the Right Side*) and *Noces* (1938; *Festivities*), books of essays dealing with the meaning of life and its joys, as well as its underlying meaninglessness.

Albert Camus's writing marks a break with the traditional bourgeois (middle class)



Albert Camus.

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novel. He is less interested in psychological (involving the study of the mind) analysis than in philosophical problems in his books. Camus developed an idea of the “absurd,” which provides the theme for much of his earlier work: the “absurd” is the gulf between man’s desire for a world of happiness, a world which he can understand rationally, and the actual world, which is confused and irrational. The second stage in Camus’s thought developed from the first—man should not simply accept the “absurd” universe, but should “revolt” against it. This revolt is not political but in the name of traditional values.

### L’Étranger

His first novel, *L’Étranger* (The Stranger), published in 1942, focuses on the negative aspect of man. The theme of the novel is embodied in the “stranger” of its title, a young clerk called Meursault, who is narrator as well as hero. Meursault is a stranger to all expected human emotions. He is a human sleepwalking through life. The crisis of the novel takes place on a beach, when Meursault, involved in a quarrel not of his causing, shoots an Arab. The second part of the novel deals with his trial for murder and his sentence to death, which he understands about as much as why he killed the Arab. Meursault is absolutely honest in describing his feelings, and it is this honesty that makes him a “stranger” in the world and ensures the verdict of guilty. The total situation symbolizes the absurd nature of life, and this effect is increased by the deliberately flat and colorless style of the book.

Unable to find work in France during World War II (1939–45; a war in which Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan), because Germany invaded and occupied France, Camus returned to Algeria in 1941 and finished his next book, *Le Mythe de Sisyphe* (The Myth of Sisyphus), also published in 1942. This is a philosophical essay on the nature of the meaninglessness of life, which is shown in the mythical figure of Sisyphus, who is sentenced for eternity to roll a heavy rock up a mountain only to have it roll back down again. Sisyphus becomes a symbol of mankind and, in his constant efforts, achieves a certain sad victory.

In 1942 Camus, back in France, joined a Resistance group and engaged in underground journalism until the Liberation in 1944, when he became editor of the former Resistance newspaper *Combat* for three years. Also during this period his first two plays were staged: *Le Malentendu* (Cross-Purpose) in 1944 and *Caligula* in 1945. Here again the principal theme is the meaninglessness of life and the finality of death. It was in playwriting that Camus felt most successful.

In 1947 Camus published his second novel, *La Peste* (The Plague). Here, Camus focuses on the positive side of man. In describing a fictional attack of bubonic plague (a highly contagious outbreak of disease that causes many deaths) in the Algerian city of Oran, he again treats the theme of the absurd, represented by the meaningless and totally unearned suffering and death caused by the plague. But now the theme of revolt is strongly developed. Man cannot accept this suffering without a fight. The narrator, Dr. Rieux, explains his ideal of “honesty”—preserving his strength of character by struggling as best he can, even if unsuccessfully, against the outbreak of disease. On one level the novel can be taken as a fictional representation of the German occupation of France. It also has a wider appeal, though, as a symbol of the fight against evil and suffering, the major moral problem of human experience.

### Later works

Camus's next important book was *L'Homme révolté* (1951; The Rebel). Another long essay, this work treats the theme of revolt in political, as well as philosophical,

terms. Camus, who had been a member of the Communist Party (a political party whose members support the idea that the government should control the production and distribution of goods) for one year, afterward maintained a position of political independence from the parties in France. In this book he develops the idea that man should not tolerate the irrationality of the world, while at the same time making a careful distinction between revolt and revolution. Revolution, despite its initial ideals, he sees as something that always ends in a cruelty as great or greater than the one it set out to destroy. Instead Camus asks for revolt: a more individual protest, in tune with the values of tolerance and moderation. Above all he strongly rejects the Marxist belief that “history” will inevitably produce a world revolution and that any action committed in its name will therefore be justified. For Camus, the end can never justify the means.

In 1957 Camus received the great honor of the Nobel Prize in Literature for his works. In the same year he began to work on a fourth important novel and was also about to become the director of a major Paris theater, when, on January 4, 1960, he was killed in a car crash near Paris. He was forty-six years old. This was a tragic loss to literature, since he had yet to write the works of his full maturity as an artist and a thinker.

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# AL CAPONE

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**Born:** January 17, 1899

**Brooklyn, New York, New York**

**Died:** January 25, 1947

**Palm Island, Florida**

*American gangster and criminal*

A l “Scarface” Capone was an American gangster who rose to power during the Prohibition era (1920–33), when the United States banned the production and sale of liquor. His vicious career illustrated the power and influence of organized crime in the United States.

## **“Scarface” is born**

Alphonso Caponi was born on January 17, 1899, in Brooklyn, New York. He was one of seven children born to Gabriel and Teresa Caponi, who came to the United States from Italy in 1893. His father was a barber. Capone attended school through the sixth grade, at which point he beat up his teacher one day and was himself beaten by the school’s principal afterward.

Like many other American children at the time, Capone was taught that the main purpose of life was to acquire wealth and that the United States was the land of opportunity. He discovered that prejudice (unfair treatment) based on his ethnic background made it difficult to succeed in school and that others looked down on the children of immigrants and members of the working class. Angered by the gap between the American dream and his own reality, Capone began to engage in criminal activities as a

way of achieving success in what he saw as an unjust society.

Capone worked at odd jobs for a while but found his calling when a gangster named Johnny Torrio (1882–1957) hired him to work in a bar owned by Torrio’s friend. Torrio knew Capone did not mind violence and often had him beat up people who were unable to repay loans. Over time, Capone learned more and more about the criminal world. During a fight in a bar he received a razor cut on his cheek, which gained him the nickname “Scarface.” He then met a woman named Mae Coughlin (1897–1986), with whom he had a child named Albert Francis Capone (nicknamed Sonny). Capone and Coughlin married a short time later, on December 18, 1918.

## **Success in Chicago**

In 1919 the U.S. government approved the Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution, a law prohibiting (or preventing) the manufacture, sale, and transport of liquor. The same year, Capone fled Brooklyn for Chicago to avoid a murder charge. In Chicago he joined the Five Points Gang and quickly moved up its ranks. He became the top assistant to the gang’s leader, his old friend Johnny Torrio, who had set up operations in the city. Capone worked as a bartender and enforcer for Torrio and was arrested many times for assaulting people, but Torrio’s influence saved him from jail.

After Torrio fled the country, Capone found himself in control of part of the bootlegging (illegal supplying of alcohol) in Chicago that had sprung up after Prohibition (preventing by law the production, sale, or transportation of liquor). The citizens of

Chicago had not been in favor of Prohibition. Many of them were more than willing to break the law by purchasing alcohol. Capone took advantage of this attitude and conducted his business openly. As he would tell reporter Damon Runyon, "I make money by supplying a public demand. If I break the law, my customers . . . some of the best people in Chicago, are as guilty as me."

Capone protected his business interests, which also included gambling houses, by waging war on rival gangs. During the St. Valentine's Day massacre in 1929, seven members of a rival gang led by George "Bugsy" Moran were shot to death in a Chicago garage. Protecting these businesses also often involved either bribing or beating up public officials. As Capone's profits continued to grow, he began to act as if he were a well-to-do businessman rather than a vicious criminal. Many people, including members of the police and city government, admired him. Between 1927 and 1931 he was viewed by many as the real ruler of Chicago.

The truth is that Capone was totally unworthy of admiration. He was a cold-blooded criminal who killed hundreds of people without a second thought. He paid off mayors, governors, and other elected officials to allow his crooked operations to continue. He could even influence elections by having members of his gang intimidate people into voting the way he wanted. Capone's reign of terror gave the city of Chicago a reputation as a gangster-infested place that it would hold for years, even after he was long gone.

### ***Menace to society***

Most of the rest of the country (and even some people in Chicago) correctly regarded



*Al Capone.*

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Capone as a menace. In the late 1920s President Herbert Hoover (1874–1964) ordered his secretary of the treasury to find a way to put Capone behind bars. Capone had up to this point managed to escape jail time for any of his crimes. The government's decision to crack down on him just added to the problems he was having. His profits from bootlegging had started to decline as a result of the coming of the Great Depression (a period from 1929 to 1939 during which nearly half the industrial workers in the country lost their jobs) and the ending of Prohibition.

After detailed investigations, U.S. Treasury agents were able to arrest Capone for failure to

file an income tax return. Forced to defend himself while being tried on a different charge in Chicago, Capone's testimony regarding his taxes did not match previous statements he had made, and he was found guilty of tax fraud. In October 1931 he was sentenced to ten years of hard labor, which he served in a prison in Atlanta, Georgia, and in prison on Alcatraz Island in California's San Francisco Bay.

Capone suffered from syphilis, a disease passed from person to person through sexual contact. The disease can affect the brain if left untreated. Capone became physically weak and started to lose his mind. As a result, his power within the nation's organized crime system ended. Released on parole in 1939, Capone spent the rest of his life at his estate in Palm Island, Florida, where he died on January 25, 1947.

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## TRUMAN CAPOTE

**Born:** September 30, 1924

New Orleans, Louisiana

**Died:** August 25, 1984

Los Angeles, California

*American author*

Truman Capote is one of the most famous and controversial writers in contemporary American literature. He is best known for *In Cold Blood*, a nonfiction novel about the murder of an American family. Because of his style and themes, reviewers of his early fiction categorized him as a Southern Gothic writer (a style of fiction that uses gloomy settings and has mysterious events). Other works, however, display a humorous and sentimental tone.

#### **The young man**

Truman Streckfus Persons was born on September 24, 1924, in New Orleans, Louisiana. His parents, Archulus Persons and Lillie Mae Faulk, were divorced when he was four years old. He lived with relatives in Monroeville, Alabama, while his mother and her second husband, Cuban businessman Joseph Capote, lived in New York.

His closest friends at this time were an elderly cousin, Miss Sook Faulk, and a neighboring tomboy, Harper Lee (1926–). She later became an award-winning author herself, writing *To Kill a Mockingbird*. Both friends appear as characters in Capote's early fiction.

When Truman was nine years old, his mother brought her son to live in Manhattan, New York. He then took on his adopted last name, Capote. He continued to spend summers in the South. He did poorly in school, even though psychological tests proved that his Intelligence Quotient (IQ) was above genius level. Truman developed an outgoing personality to hide his loneliness and unhappiness.

#### **Early writing**

Truman began secretly writing at an early age. When he completed high school,

he worked for *The New Yorker*. There he wrote articles and short stories. He also made important social contacts and later became a frequent guest on television talk shows. When he was seventeen, several magazines published his short stories. That exposure eventually led to a contract to write his first book, *Other Voices, Other Rooms*. Set in the South, the novel centers on a young man's search for his father and his loss of innocence as he passes into manhood. Many critics and readers believed that the novel was autobiographical (a story about himself).

Many of Capote's early stories were written when he was in his teens and early twenties. Collected in *A Tree of Night and Other Stories*, these stories show the influence of Gothic writers such as Edgar Allan Poe (1809–1849), Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804–1864), and William Faulkner (1897–1962). Many of the stories are filled with bizarre incidents and characters suffering from mental and physical disorders. Yet some of the tales have a humorous tone. Critics often place his early fiction into two categories: light stories or bizarre stories. In later years Capote commented that many of those stories reflected the anxiety and feelings of insecurity he experienced as a child.

### **Mid-career writing**

In some of Capote's works of the 1950s, his attention is turned away from traditional fiction. In *Local Color* he wrote a collection of pieces retelling his impressions and experiences while in Europe. In *The Muses Are Heard: An Account* he wrote essays about his travels in Russia with a touring theater company that presented the play *Porgy and Bess*.

Before Capote found his main subject, he published one more traditional novel,

*Breakfast at Tiffany's*. It was an engaging story of Manhattan playgirl Holly Golightly. In 1952 the novel was adapted as a Broadway drama. Critics believe *Breakfast at Tiffany's* is a good example of a maturity lacking in Capote's early fiction. Though Capote conceived his story as fiction, he was already drawing heavily from real life incidents. Capote saw the second phase of his development as a writer come to a close with *Breakfast at Tiffany's*. He turned his efforts toward writing as an art form.

From these projects Capote developed the idea of creating work that would combine fact and fiction. The result was *In Cold*

*Blood*. Originally, chapters of the book appeared in several issues of *The New Yorker* and the work was later published in book form. This book describes the murder of Kansas farmer Herbert W. Clutter and his family in November 1959. Capote and Harper Lee, his childhood friend, went to Holcomb, Kansas, to research the case. The town residents were not only emotionally shocked and upset about the murders, but they were also deeply suspicious of Capote and his motives. He retraced the killers' flight to Miami, Florida, and Acapulco, Mexico. He did months of research on the criminal mind and interviewed a number of death row killers. Before he began writing, Capote had gathered over six thousand pages of notes. All told, the project, which Capote regarded as the third phase of his writing development, took almost six years. *In Cold Blood*, published in 1965, became a bestseller. Capote received an Edgar Award from the Mystery Writers of America.

In the late 1960s Capote began suffering from writer's block. He spent most of his time revising or throwing out his works in progress. During the mid-1970s he published several chapters of *Answered Prayers* in *Esquire* magazine. It was a gossip-filled chronicle of society's jet set (an international group of wealthy people who lead expensive, social lives). The stories revealed intimate details about his society friends. Most critics found the chapters disappointing. His friends felt betrayed and refused to have contact with him.

#### ***Television personality and later years***

During his youth, Capote developed a flashy and humorous style. He often became a frequent guest on television shows. He

admitted that he was obsessed with fame. He constantly sought social privilege and public celebrity, objectives he achieved back in 1948 with the appearance of his first novel, *Other Voices, Other Rooms*. Throughout his life Capote made friends with the rich and famous, observing their weaknesses with a watchful eye and developing trust and close friendships he would later betray.

#### ***Final years and career assessment***

In 1983, *Music for Chameleons*, a final collection of short prose pieces, was published. Capote approached his writing by setting himself at "center stage." It included using dialogue, stage direction, narrative, and a variety of literary techniques. Critics gave less than warm reviews of *Music for Chameleons*.

Afterward, Capote took to alcohol, drug addiction, and suffered poor health. He died in Los Angeles, California, on August 24, 1984, shortly before his sixtieth birthday. According to his friends and editors, the only portions of *Answered Prayers* he had managed to complete were those that had appeared in *Esquire* several years before.

Critical assessment of Capote's career is highly divided, both in terms of individual works and his overall contribution to literature. Though the nonfiction novel was his most original contribution to the literary world, Capote also produced short stories, plays, straight reportage, television adaptations from books or plays, and film scripts. His main faults were overwriting and creating strange plots. Most praise his storytelling abilities and the quality of his prose.



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## FRANK CAPRA

**Born:** May 18, 1897

**Palermo, Sicily, Italy**

**Died:** September 3, 1991

**Los Angeles, California**

*Italian-born American filmmaker*

Filmmaker Frank Capra was Hollywood's top director in the 1930s. He created several immensely popular movies that captured the mood of the Depression-era United States, and he earned more Academy Award nominations than any of his contemporaries.

### Early years and education

Frank Capra was born in Palermo, Sicily, Italy, on May 18, 1897, the youngest of Salvatore and Sarah Nicolas Capra's seven children. His father was a fruitgrower. When Frank was six years old his family left Sicily for the United States, ending up in Los Angeles, California. Capra fought to go to college against his parents' wishes, working several jobs to pay his way through the California

Institute of Technology. After graduating and serving in the army, he had trouble finding a decent job. His relatives on the other hand, none of whom had college degrees, were all employed. While in San Francisco, California, Capra, with twelve cents to his name, answered a newspaper advertisement placed by an actor who was looking for a director to help him create film versions of his favorite poetry.

### Begins film career

Capra turned out films based on poems such as Rudyard Kipling's (1865–1936) "Ful-tah Fisher's Boarding House." He then sold them to the regular movie studios for a profit. After a series of these, Capra went to work for Harry Cohn, who ran a small company called CBC, which would grow into Columbia Pictures. For a while Capra also worked with Harry Langdon (1884–1944), a famous comedian of the silent movie era. It was with Langdon that Capra made his first feature films, *Tramp*, *Tramp*, *Tramp*, *The Strong Man*, and *Long Pants*. All were successful, but Langdon wanted to direct his own movies, so he fired Capra. Capra went back to work for Harry Cohn at Columbia.

Capra turned out a series of action movies that were well made and did very well at the box office. It was in this period that Capra made his first film with sound, *The Younger Generation*. In 1930 Capra began working with a writer named Jo Swerling after Swerling attacked one of his scripts in front of Harry Cohn. Impressed with Swerling's criticisms, Capra asked Cohn to hire the New York writer. Swerling was an important influence on Capra. Their first film together, *Ladies of Leisure*, starred Barbara



Frank Capra.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Stanwyck (1907–1990) and showed Capra developing his personal style.

### Won Oscars

Although Capra worked regularly with both Swerling and Stanwyck, his breakthrough project came from another writer, Robert Riskin (1897–1955). *It Happened One Night* won the Academy Award (Oscar) for Best Picture, Best Director (Capra), and Best Actor and Actress (Clark Gable [1901–1960] and Claudette Colbert [1903–1996], respectively). One of the most famous scenes takes place on a broken down bus in which the riders, to entertain themselves, sing “The

Daring Young Man on the Flying Trapeze.” It is vintage Frank Capra material, offering a vision of a world in which social differences are broken down and a democratic feeling of togetherness is achieved.

Capra’s next big film, *Mr. Deeds Goes to Town*, also written by Riskin, won Capra another Oscar for Best Director. In it Capra’s belief in the goodness of the common man shows through more clearly. When Mr. Deeds becomes wealthy through an inheritance, he decides to give a significant part of his fortune to the poor. This leads his family to try to have him declared insane. At his trial, Mr. Deeds, played by Gary Cooper (1901–1961), refuses to speak in his own defense until his own faith in the goodness of humanity is restored. As his faith is restored, so is the audience’s, and the film ends happily. In 1938 Capra won his third Best Director Oscar for *You Can’t Take It With You*, an adaptation of a popular play. It is the story of a common woman, played by Jean Arthur, whose love saves the soul of a millionaire’s son, played by Jimmy Stewart (1908–1997). It was Capra’s first film with Stewart.

The next year Capra and Stewart would make *Mr. Smith Goes to Washington*, the perfect expression of Capra’s political belief that the innocent goodness of one man can overcome the greed and cynicism (distrust) of politicians, industrialists (those who own or manage an industry), and the media. The film ends with the hero’s twenty-three-hour speech on the floor of the Senate where he refuses to be defeated. At one point Mr. Smith admits that “the only causes worth fighting for are lost causes.”

### **War intervenes**

In Jimmy Stewart Capra found an actor capable of expressing the theme of a common man as hero in a bad situation. A good case can be made that the change in America's self-image caused by World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis—Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies—England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States) can be seen in the change in Jimmy Stewart's self-image in his two most famous roles for Capra. At the end of *Mr. Smith Goes to Washington*, Mr. Smith manages to maintain his hopeful attitude, while George Bailey of *It's a Wonderful Life* goes through a much darker change to find happiness. Capra's last film before the United States entered the war was *Meet John Doe*, starring Gary Cooper.

During World War II Capra entered the armed services and made propaganda (ideas spread to further a cause or belief) films for the Allies. They were considered the finest films made on the Allied side. After the war Capra started his own film company, Liberty Films Inc. It was then that he made *It's a Wonderful Life*, the story of an extraordinary but deeply discouraged man who, around Christmas, is allowed to see what the world would have been like if he had never been born. The film would become one of the classics of the American screen, but when it was released, it was not a success. His next film, *State of the Union*

with Spencer Tracy (1900–1967) and Katherine Hepburn (1907–), was a mean-spirited and confusing political picture that did nothing to bolster Capra's sagging reputation.

### **Later years**

Capra made only five more films, and none was comparable to the artistic success of his earlier efforts or of *It's a Wonderful Life*. He made his last film, *Pocketful of Miracles*, in 1961. It was another box office disappointment, and from then until his death in 1991 he never got behind the camera again. In 1971, he published his autobiography, *The Name Above the Title*.

Although Frank Capra does not have a reputation among critics equal to those of other directors, his best films are still popular with audiences, especially with young people who identify with Capra's heroes. In the end it is probably his simple vision—combined with a mastery of the film form itself—that has made him so enduringly popular.

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## *reader's guide*

*U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography* features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

for further information. A contents section lists biographees by their nationality. Nearly 750 photographs and illustrations are featured, and a general index provides quick access to the people and subjects discussed throughout *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*.

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### ***Comments and suggestions***

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## LÁZARO CÁRDENAS

**Born:** May 21, 1895

**Jiquilpán de Juárez, Michoacán, Mexico**

**Died:** October 19, 1970

**Mexico City, Mexico**

*Mexican president and revolutionary*

**L**ázaro Cárdenas was a Mexican revolutionary leader and president. During his administration he carried out major land reforms that benefited the Mexican people and brought the country's oil industry back under Mexican control, thus restoring the people's faith in the revolution.

### *Early life*

Lázaro Cárdenas was born of mixed white and Tarascan Indian ancestry in Jiquilpán de Juárez in the state of Michoacán, Mexico, on May 21, 1895. The oldest son of a shopkeeper, he left school after fourth grade to work in a tax office. As a young man Cárdenas was quiet and serious. After his father died in 1911, he became the father figure for his seven brothers and sisters, several of whom would follow him into military and political careers.

Cárdenas was a fierce and ambitious patriot and was greatly affected when the Mexican Revolution (1910–11) broke out. During this time Cárdenas was working at a local jail in order to support his family. In 1913 he released his prisoners and together they joined the





Lázaro Cárdenas.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

maderistas, the rebels resisting the government of General Victoriano Huerta (1854–1916).

### ***Military career***

After the Convention of Aguascalientes, Cárdenas fought briefly in the army of Pancho Villa (1878–1923), who also was fighting against Huerta. In 1915 Cárdenas joined the Constitutionalists, and in the revolt of Agua Prieta he sided with Álvaro Obregón (1880–1928) against Villa. In 1923 he was captured. He later escaped, and was then forced to hide out in Guadalajara, Mexico, for several months. Soon afterwards Cárdenas quickly rose through the military ranks.

During the 1923 rebellion he commanded loyal forces in Michoacán. The following year he was promoted to brigadier general and given command of military operations in Huasteca, Michoacán, and the Isthmus. Cárdenas's rise to military power was greatly helped by his friendship with his commanding general, Plutarco Elías Calles (1877–1945).

### ***Political career***

By 1924 Calles had become president of Mexico. Thanks in part to his relationship with the president, in 1928 Cárdenas became governor of Michoacán, his home state. He served there until 1932. As governor he actively supported land reform, developed education, and aided labor and peasant organizations through his radical group, Confederación Revolucionaria Michoacana de Trabajo. To his reputation as an honest military serviceman he added a similar reputation of serving the people of Mexico.

During the following years, Cárdenas served as minister of the government and as minister of war. Cárdenas showed great support for Calles during these years and his loyalty would soon pay off. In 1934 Calles effectively nominated Cárdenas as the presidential candidate for the National Revolutionary Party (PNR). Calles thought he would be able to control his old friend. By this time, however, the Depression (an extended period of economic hardship) had settled in across Mexico. People rallied Cárdenas as a reformer (someone pushing to change social policies) and he gained support for the presidency.

### ***President of Mexico***

Cárdenas won and entered office with a radical mandate, or command, in the new Six

Year Plan. He proceeded to carry it out and gave the people personal attention and patience. His six-year term was marked by maintaining his revolutionary faith. Much of his term was spent on the road visiting remote villages and listening to the complaints and ideas of the people of Mexico.

When Calles challenged his tolerance toward labor, Cárdenas forced him to leave Mexico. Labor gained new power as it reorganized under Lombardo Toledano (1894–1968) in the Mexican Confederation of Labor. Cárdenas confiscated forty-five million acres of land and distributed them to the ejidos, or peasant communities. The lands included new collective types with large financial and technical support in the cotton region of La Laguna and the henequen (a fiber that comes from the agave plant) area of Yucatán. The nationalization of the railroads was completed and turned over to governmental control. In 1938 petroleum holdings in Mexico owned by foreign countries were also nationalized. This action would be described as Mexico's declaration of economic independence.

### **Ending his career**

In 1938 Cárdenas crushed the last significant regional revolt, which was led by Saturnino Cedillo in San Luis Potosi. Mexico then opened its doors to political exiles (those forced to leave a country for political reasons). These exiles included the Russian revolutionist Leon Trotsky (1879–1940) and a considerable number of Republican Spanish refugees. In the presidential election of 1940 Cárdenas backed moderately conservative Manuel Ávila Camacho (1897–1955) and served him as secretary of defense in 1943. For more than a quarter century Cárdenas remained a political force in Mexico.

In 1960, during the Bay of Pigs episode, where there was a failed attempt to assassinate Cuban prime minister Fidel Castro (1926–), Cárdenas took a strong pro-Castro position, but avoided getting involved in the matter. Cárdenas consistently disappointed those who wanted to link his name with violence and the disruption of the political process. In October 1968 he strongly urged the students to end violence. He remained a supporter of rapid reform, but by peaceful means. He died on October 19, 1970, in Mexico City, Mexico.

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STOKELY  
CARMICHAEL

**Born:** June 29, 1941

**Port of Spain, Trinidad**

**Died:** November 15, 1998

**Conakry, Guinea**

*Trinidadian-born American civil rights activist*



*Stokely Carmichael.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

**S**tokely Carmichael was a civil rights activist during the turbulent 1960s. He soared to fame by popularizing the phrase “Black Power.” Carmichael championed civil rights for African Americans in a rapidly changing world.

### *Inspiration in New York*

Stokely Carmichael was born in Port of Spain, Trinidad, on June 29, 1941. His father moved his family to the United States when Stokely was only two years old. In New York City’s Harlem neighborhood, Carmichael’s self-described “hip” presence quickly made

him popular among his white, upper-class schoolmates. Later his family moved to the Bronx, where Carmichael soon discovered the lure of intellectual life after being admitted to the Bronx High School of Science, a school for gifted students.

Carmichael’s political interests began with the work of African American civil rights activist Bayard Rustin (1910–1987), whom he heard speak many times. At one point Carmichael volunteered to help Rustin organize African American workers in a paint factory. But the radical and unfriendly views of Rustin and other similar African American activists would eventually push Carmichael away from the movement.

### *The civil rights movement*

While Carmichael was in school in the Bronx in the early 1960s, the civil rights movement exploded into the forefront of American culture. The Supreme Court declared that school segregation (separating people based on their race) was illegal. African Americans in Montgomery, Alabama, successfully ended segregation on the city’s buses through a yearlong boycott. During the boycott, they recruited others to stop using the buses until the companies changed their policies. During Carmichael’s senior year in high school, four African American freshmen from a school in North Carolina staged a famous sit-in, or peaceful protest, at the white-only lunch counter in a department store.

The action of these students captured the imagination of young Carmichael. He soon began participating in the movements around New York City. Carmichael also traveled to Virginia and South Carolina to join

sit-ins protesting discrimination (treating people differently based solely on their race).

### ***Joining the movement***

Carmichael refused offers to attend white colleges and decided to study at the historically black Howard University in Washington, D.C. At Howard, Carmichael majored in philosophy and became more and more involved in the civil rights movement.

Carmichael joined a local organization called the Nonviolent Action Group. This group was connected with an Atlanta-based civil rights organization, the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC). Whenever he had free time, Carmichael traveled south to join the “freedom riders,” an activist group that rode interstate buses in an attempt to end segregation on buses and in bus terminals.

Although the “freedom riders” gained support in some parts of the country, they met resistance in other areas, especially the South. Some of the freedom rider buses were bombed or burned. The riders themselves were often beaten and jailed. In the spring of 1961, when Carmichael was twenty, he spent forty-nine days in a Jackson, Mississippi, jail. One observer said that Carmichael was so rebellious during this period that the sheriff and prison guards were relieved when he was released.

After graduating in 1964 with a bachelor's degree in philosophy, Carmichael stayed in the South. He constantly participated in sit-ins, picketing, and voter registration drives (organized gatherings to help people register to vote). He was especially active in Lowndes County, Alabama, where he helped

found the Lowndes County Freedom Party, a political party that chose a black panther as its symbol. The symbol was a perfect choice to oppose the white rooster that symbolized the Alabama Democratic Party.

### ***Turning from nonviolence***

The turning point in Carmichael's experience came as he watched when African American demonstrators were beaten and shocked with cattle prods by police. With his activism deepening and as he saw the violence toward both violent and nonviolent protesters, he began to distance himself from nonviolent methods, including those of Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968).

In 1965 Carmichael replaced the moderate John Lewis (1940–) as the president of the SNCC. He then joined Martin Luther King Jr. in his now famous “Freedom March.” King led thousands from Selma to Montgomery, Alabama, to register black voters. But Carmichael had trouble agreeing with King that the march should be nonviolent and that people from all races should participate. During this march Carmichael began to express his views about “Black Power” to the media. Many Americans reacted strongly to this slogan that some people believed was antiwhite and promoted violence.

### ***“Black Power” and backlash***

Carmichael's ideas of “Black Power,” which he turned into the book *Black Power* (coauthored by Charles V. Hamilton), and his article “What We Want,” advanced the idea that racial equality was not the only answer to racism in America. Carmichael and Hamilton linked the struggle for African American empowerment, or the process of gaining

political power, in America to the end of imperialism worldwide (or the end of powerful countries forcing their authority on weaker countries, especially those in Africa).

With racial tensions at an all-time high, journalists demanded that Carmichael define the phrase "Black Power." Soon Carmichael began to believe that no matter what his explanation, the American public would interpret it negatively. In one interview, Carmichael spoke of rallying African Americans to elect officials who would help the black community. However, Carmichael sometimes explained the term "Black Power" in a different way when he spoke to African American audiences. As James Haskins recorded in his book, *Profiles in Black Power* (1972), Carmichael explained to one crowd, "When you talk of 'Black Power,' you talk of building a movement that will smash everything Western civilization has created." Carmichael and his movement continued to be seen by many in America as a movement that could spark a "Race War."

With the civil rights movement in full swing, the SNCC became more of a way to spread Carmichael's "Black Power" movement. When Carmichael declined to run for reelection as leader of the SNCC, however, the organization soon dissolved.

### ***An international focus***

By this time, Carmichael's political attention had shifted as well. He began speaking out against what he called U.S. imperialism (domination of other nations) worldwide. Reports told of Carmichael traveling the world making statements against American policies in other countries, especially America's involvement in the Vietnam War (1955–75), a

war fought in Vietnam in which the United States supported South Vietnam in its fight against a takeover by Communist North Vietnam. These reports only fueled dislike and fear of Carmichael in the United States.

In 1968, the radical and violent Oakland, California-based Black Panther Party made Carmichael their honorary prime minister. He resigned from that post the following year, rejecting Panther loyalty to white activists.

Carmichael then based himself in Washington, D.C., and continued to speak around the country. In May 1968 he married South African singer-activist Miriam Makeba.

### ***Leaving America behind***

In 1969 Carmichael left the United States for Conakry, Republic of Guinea, in West Africa. While in Guinea, Carmichael took the name Kwame Ture. Over the next decades, he founded the All-African Revolutionary Party.

Unlike many of his peers who emerged from the civil rights movement, Carmichael's passion and beliefs always remained strong. He continued to support a revolution as the answer to the problems of racism and unfairness until his death from prostate cancer on November 15, 1998, in Conakry, Guinea.

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## ANDREW CARNEGIE

**Born:** November 25, 1835

**Dunfermline, Scotland**

**Died:** August 11, 1919

**Lenox, Massachusetts**

*Scottish-born American industrialist and philanthropist*

The Scottish-born American industrialist and philanthropist Andrew Carnegie was the leader of the American steel industry from 1873 to 1901. He donated large sums of his fortune to educational, cultural, and scientific institutions.

### *Youth and early manhood*

Andrew Carnegie was born on November 25, 1835, in Dunfermline, Scotland, the son of William Carnegie, a weaver, and Margaret Morrison Carnegie. The invention of weaving machines replaced the work Carnegie's father did, and eventually the family was forced into poverty. In 1848 the family left Scotland and settled in Allegheny City, Pennsylvania. Carnegie's father found a job in a cotton factory, but he soon quit to return to his home handloom, making linens and trying to sell them door to door. Carnegie also worked in the cotton factory, but after his father died in 1855, his strong desire to help take care of the family

pushed him to educate himself. He became an avid reader, a theatergoer, and a lover of music.

Carnegie became a messenger boy for the Pittsburgh telegraph office. He later became a telegraph operator. Thomas A. Scott, superintendent of the western division of the Pennsylvania Railroad, made the eighteen-year-old Carnegie his secretary. Carnegie was soon earning enough salary to buy a house for his mother. During the Civil War (1861–65), when Scott was named assistant secretary of war in charge of transportation, Carnegie helped organize the military telegraph system. But he soon returned to Pittsburgh to take Scott's old job with the railroad.

### *A future in steel*

Between 1865 and 1870 Carnegie made money through investments in several small iron mills and factories. He also traveled throughout England, selling the bonds of small United States railroads and bridge companies. Carnegie began to see that steel was eventually going to replace iron for the manufacture of rails, structural shapes, pipe, and wire. In 1873 he organized a steel rail company. The first steel furnace at Braddock, Pennsylvania, began to roll rails in 1874. Carnegie continued building by cutting prices, driving out competitors, shaking off weak partners, and putting earnings back into the company. He never went public (sold shares of his company in order to raise money). Instead he obtained capital (money) from profits—and, when necessary, from local banks—and he kept on growing, making heavy steel alone. By 1878 the company was valued at \$1.25 million.

In the 1880s Carnegie's purchases included a majority stake in the H. C. Frick



Andrew Carnegie.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Company, which had vast coal lands and over one thousand ovens in Connellsville, Pennsylvania, and the Homestead mills outside of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Frick became his partner and eventually chairman of the Carnegie Company. Carnegie had moved to New York City in 1867 to be close to the marketing centers for steel products; Frick stayed in Pittsburgh as the general manager. They made a good team. Behind the scenes, Carnegie planned new projects, cost controls, and the improvement of plants; Frick was the working director who watched over the mass-production programs that helped keep prices down.

Carnegie spent his leisure time traveling. He also wrote several books, including *Triumphant Democracy* (1886), which pointed out the advantages of American life over the unequal societies of Britain and other European countries. To Carnegie access to education was the key to America's political stability and industrial accomplishments. In 1889 he published an article, "Wealth," stating his belief that rich men had a duty to use their money to improve the welfare of the community. Carnegie remained a bachelor until his mother died in 1886. A year later he married Louise Whitfield. They had one child together. The couple began to spend six months each year in Scotland, though Carnegie kept an eye on business developments and problems.

### *Trials of the 1890s*

Carnegie's absence from the United States was a factor in the Homestead mill strike of 1892. After acquiring Homestead, Carnegie had invested in new plants and equipment, increased production, and automated many of the mill's operations, cutting down the number of workers that were needed. These workers belonged to a union, the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, with which the Carnegie Company had established wage and work agreements on a three-year basis. Carnegie believed that workers had a right to bargain with management through their unions. He also recognized the right to strike, as long as the action was conducted peacefully. He viewed strikes as trials of strength, with peaceful discussion resolving the conflict.

In contract talks during 1892, Frick wanted to lower the minimum wage because

of the need for fewer workers. The union would not accept this and organized a strike. Carnegie was in Scotland, but he had instructed Frick that if a strike occurred the plant was to be shut down. Frick decided to smash the union by hiring people from the Pinkerton Agency as replacement workers and by trying to open the company properties by force. Two barges carrying three hundred Pinkertons moved up the Monongahela River and were shot at from the shore. The Pinkertons fired back, but they eventually surrendered. Five strikers and three Pinkertons were killed, and there were many injuries. The strikers had won; the company property remained closed. Five days later the governor of Pennsylvania sent in soldiers to restore order and open the plant. The soldiers were eventually withdrawn, and two months later the union called off the strike. Carnegie was criticized for his lack of action.

In the 1890s Carnegie also began to meet with tougher competition from newer, bigger companies who were interested in controlled prices and sharing the market. Companies that he had sold to for years threatened to cut down their purchases unless he agreed to cooperate. These threats made him decide to fight back. He refused to enter into any agreements with other companies. Moreover, he decided to invade their territories by making similar products and by expanding his sales activities into the West. Eventually, though, he decided to sell his company to the newly formed U.S. Steel Corporation in 1901 for almost \$500 million. Carnegie's personal share was \$225 million.

### ***Carnegie's philanthropy***

In retirement, Carnegie began to set up trust funds "for the improvement of mankind." He built some three thousand public libraries all over the English-speaking world. In 1895 the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh was opened, housing an art gallery, a natural history museum, and a music hall. He also built a group of technical schools that make up the present-day Carnegie Mellon University. The Carnegie Institution of Washington was set up to encourage research in the natural and physical sciences. Carnegie Hall was built in New York City. The Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching was created to provide pensions for university professors. Carnegie also established the Endowment for International Peace to seek an end to war.

In all, Carnegie's donations totaled \$350 million. The continuation of his broad interests was put under the general charge of the Carnegie Corporation, with a donation of \$125 million. Carnegie died on August 11, 1919, at his summer home near Lenox, Massachusetts.

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## LEWIS CARROLL

**Born:** January 27, 1832

Daresbury, Cheshire, England

**Died:** January 14, 1898

Guildford, Surrey, England

*English church official, author, and mathematician*

The English church official Lewis Carroll was the author of *Alice in Wonderland* and *Through the Looking Glass*, famous adventure stories for children that adults also enjoy. He was also a noted mathematician and photographer.

### *Early life and education*

Lewis Carroll was born Charles Lutwidge Dodgson on January 27, 1832, the eldest son and third of eleven children born to Frances Jane Lutwidge and the Reverend Charles Dodgson. Carroll had a happy childhood. His mother was patient and gentle, and his father, despite his religious duties, tutored all of his children and raised them to be good people. Carroll frequently made up games and wrote stories and poems, some of which were similar to his later published works, for his seven sisters and three brothers.

Although his years at Rugby School (1846–49) were unhappy, he was recognized as a good student, and in 1850 he was admitted to further study at Christ Church, Oxford, England. He graduated in 1854, and in 1855 he became mathematical lecturer (more like a tutor) at the college. This permanent appointment, which not only recognized his academic skills but also paid him a decent sum, required Carroll to take holy

orders in the Anglican Church and to remain unmarried. He agreed to these requirements and was made a deacon in 1861.

### *Photography and early publication*

Among adults Carroll was reserved, but he did not avoid their company as some reports have stated. He attended the theater frequently and was absorbed by photography and writing. After taking up photography in 1856, he soon found that his favorite subjects were children and famous people, including English poet Alfred Lord Tennyson (1809–1892), Italian painter and poet D. G. Rossetti (1828–1882), and English painter John Millais (1829–1896). Helmut Gernsheim wrote of Carroll's photographs of children, "He achieves an excellence which in its way can find no peer." Though photography was mostly a hobby, Carroll spent a great deal of time on it until 1880.

In the mid-1850s Carroll also began writing both humorous and mathematical works. In 1856 he created the pseudonym (assumed writing name) "Lewis Carroll" by translating his first and middle names into Latin, reversing their order, then translating them back into English. His mathematical writing, however, appeared under his real name.

### *Alice books*

In 1856 Carroll met Alice Liddell, the four-year-old daughter of the head of Christ Church. During the next few years Carroll often made up stories for Alice and her sisters. In July 1862, while on a picnic with the Liddell girls, Carroll recounted the adventures of a little girl who fell into a rabbit hole. Alice asked him to write the story out for her. He did so, calling it *Alice's Adventures under*

*Ground*. After some changes, this work was published in 1865 as *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* with illustrations by John Tenniel.

Encouraged by the book's success, Carroll wrote a second volume, *Through the Looking Glass and What Alice Found There* (1872). Based on the chess games Carroll played with the Liddell children, it included material he had written before he knew them. The first section of "Jabberwocky," for example, was written in 1855. More of Carroll's famous Wonderland characters—such as Humpty Dumpty, the White Knight, and Tweedledum and Tweedledee—appear in this work than in *Alice in Wonderland*.

Unlike most of the children's books of the day, *Alice* and *Through the Looking Glass* did not attempt to convey obvious moral lessons. Nor did they contain what critics have tried to insist are there—hidden meanings relating to religion or politics. They are delightful adventure stories in which a normal, healthy, clearheaded little girl reacts to the "reality" of the adult world. Their appeal to adults as well as to children lies in Alice's intelligent response to ridiculous language and action.

### Later publications

Carroll published several other nonsense works, including *The Hunting of the Snark* (1876), *Sylvie and Bruno* (1889), and *Sylvie and Bruno Concluded* (1893). He also wrote a number of pamphlets poking fun at university affairs, which appeared under a fake name or without any name at all, and he composed several works on mathematics under his true name. In 1881 Carroll gave up his lecturing to devote all of his time to writing. From 1882 to 1892, however, he was



Lewis Carroll.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

curator of the common room (manager of the staff club) at Christ Church. After a short illness, he died on January 14, 1898.

### Assessment of the man

The Reverend C. L. Dodgson was a reserved, fussy bachelor who refused to get wrapped up in the political and religious storms that troubled England during his lifetime. Lewis Carroll, however, was a delightful, lovable companion to the children for whom he created his nonsense stories and poems. Biographers and historians have long been confused that one man could have two completely different sides.

One solution is that he had two personalities: "Lewis Carroll" and "the Reverend Mr. Dodgson," with the problems that go along with having a split personality. There were peculiar things about him—he stammered ever since he was a child, he was extremely fussy about his possessions, and he walked as much as twenty miles a day. But another solution seems more nearly correct: "Dodgson" and "Carroll" were parts of one personality. This personality, because of happiness in childhood and unhappiness in the years thereafter, could blossom only in a world that resembled the happy one he knew while growing up.

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## JOHNNY CARSON

**Born:** October 23, 1925

**Corning, Iowa**

*American television host*

Johnny Carson has been called the "King of Late Night Television." He became a pioneer in television as host of *The Tonight Show* for thirty years. His interviewing and comic techniques won over a huge audience and produced numerous imitators.

### **Younger years**

Johnny Carson was born on October 23, 1925, in Corning, Iowa. At the age of eight, Carson's father moved the family to Norfolk, Nebraska. It was there that Carson grew up and began developing his talent for entertaining. At twelve Carson found a book of magic and became fascinated by it. He ordered a magic kit and began practicing. He wanted to be a magician. Carson's first paid performance was at the Norfolk Rotary Club when he was fourteen years old. He had a magician's stand with the name "The Great Carsoni" on a black velvet cloth draped over the front. Carson also performed for his mother's bridge club and the Methodist Church socials.

Carson was in his senior year of high school when Japan bombed Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. After graduation he enlisted with the United States Navy. He was never in combat, but during this time he would help entertain the troops by giving shows using his ventriloquist dummy, Eddie. After the navy Carson returned to Norfolk and attended the University of Nebraska. He graduated in 1949 with a major in speech and a minor in radio. His final thesis (an academic paper) was on "How to Write Comedy Jokes."

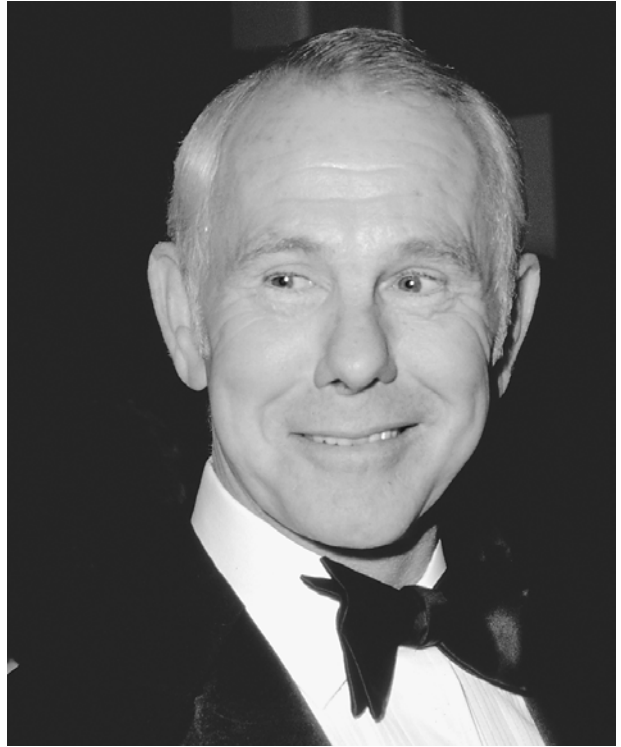
### **Start in broadcasting**

Carson joined the radio station WOW-AM in Omaha, Nebraska, directly out of college. He was given his own show, which

debuted on August 1, 1949. *The Johnny Carson Show* went on the air for forty-five minutes in the morning. He became known for using cheerful banter (good-humored teasing) while reading the news. His show was a success.

Carson decided to see if he could make it in Hollywood, California. He could not find a job for months. Finally, Carson was offered a job at KNXT to read the station call letters, the time, and the weather. The job did not give the fame or status he experienced in Omaha, but it was Hollywood and that was where he wanted to be. After a year Carson was given his own television show called *Carson's Cellar*. Many skits and characters that were later seen by millions on the *Tonight Show* made their television debut on *Carson's Cellar*. Carson worked very hard at his job. He put in extra hours, working both in and out of the studio on his show. After *Carson's Cellar* went off the air, he became a game show host for *Earn Your Vacation* and a comedy writer for Red Skelton (1913–1997). His hard work paid off. He was once asked to fill in for Skelton when the comedian was injured in rehearsals. Carson impressed the television network management.

Carson signed a contract with the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) shortly after. A year later Johnny Carson had his own half-hour comedy show called *The Johnny Carson Show*. However, because of problems the network was having with writers and directors, the program was canceled after four months. CBS failed to renew his contract. Carson was left unemployed with a wife and three sons to support. He accepted a job as game show host for *Do You Trust Your Wife?*, which later became *Who Do You Trust?*, on the American Broadcasting Companies



Johnny Carson.

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(ABC) network. He had to move to New York City for the job. New York was not as easy as Hollywood, but Carson kept working hard. He was asked to substitute for Jack Paar, who was the host of a program called *The Tonight Show*, for two weeks in 1958. He performed a comedy routine for *The Perry Como Show* about the same time. Slowly, Carson was making a name for himself again.

### ***The Tonight Show***

Steve Allen (1921–2000) started *The Tonight Show* on the radio in 1951 in Los Angeles, California. The show moved to television in 1954 in New York. Allen hosted the

show for two-and-a-half years, and was eventually replaced by Jack Paar. Several million viewers watched every night from 11:15 P.M. to 1:00 A.M. Johnny Carson took over on October 1, 1962. The rest is television history.

Over thirty years Carson developed perfect stage presence. His opening comic monologue (an act read by one person) and golf swing, his attention to comic details like timing, delivery, and gestures, plus his fair treatment of guests, made him a natural host of the most popular television show of the time. Carson believed that if the guest sparkled, so would the show. Over the years many of the country's greatest entertainers, celebrities, and everyday people sat and talked with Carson. He was a major influence in helping new performers. Comedians David Letterman (1947–), Jay Leno (1950–), George Carlin, and Joan Rivers all got their big break from appearing on *The Tonight Show*. Jay Leno eventually replaced Carson as the show's host.

Carson's personality in his private life is very different from the personality he played on the television set. On *The Tonight Show* Carson always seemed very relaxed and seemed to enjoy making casual chat with his guests. Outside the studio, Carson preferred to remain distant. He was almost shy and small talk did not impress him. Carson preferred to save himself for his audience. He has been divorced three times and often worked those experiences into his monologues.

#### After The Tonight Show

After hosting *The Tonight Show* 4,531 times for millions of people over thirty years, Carson decided to retire from the show. On Friday, May 22, 1992, Johnny Carson did his famous golf swing for the last time.

Carson lives in Malibu, California, with his wife, Alex Mass. He manages to play tennis and sail his boat when he is not working at his company, Carson Production Group. He reportedly entertains thoughts of releasing *The Tonight Show* reruns for sale directly to local cable television channels. Carson had surgery to treat coronary (heart) artery disease in 1999. In 2002 he donated seventy-five thousand dollars to build a skateboard park in his hometown of Corning, Iowa. Many people think that every host of late-night television has a show today because of what Johnny Carson accomplished.

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## KIT CARSON

**Born:** December 24, 1809

**Madison County, Kentucky**

**Died:** May 23, 1868

**Fort Lyon, Colorado**

*American frontiersman, soldier, western guide, and Indian agent*

**K**it Carson (1809–1868) was a frontiersman, western guide, and trapper. He first gained fame as a distinguished

guide for explorers in the western frontier, when America had a love affair with the untamed land west of the Mississippi River. Thanks in part to fictional tales and exaggerated magazine stories, Carson's reputation as a guide soon turned to that of legend, and the myth of Kit Carson was born.

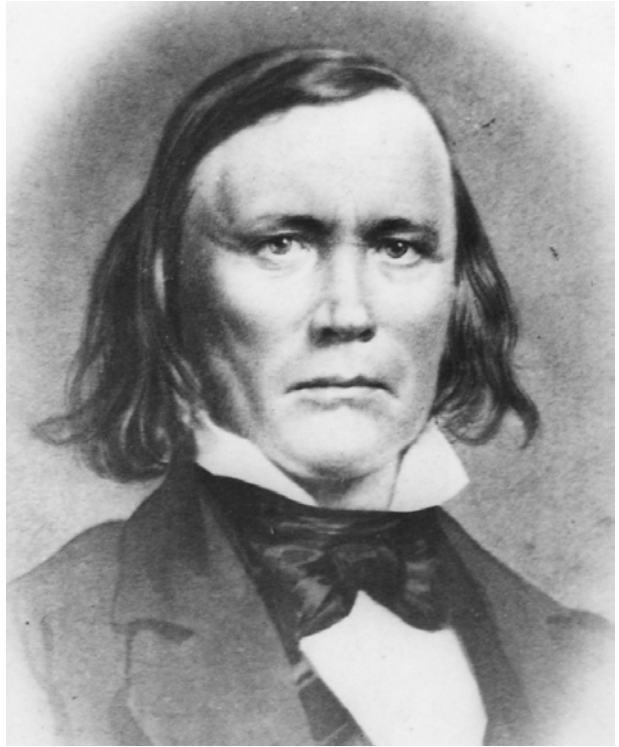
### *Before he became a legend*

Christopher "Kit" Carson was born in Madison County, Kentucky, on December 24, 1809. His father, Lindsey Carson, fought in the American Revolution (1775–83), a war in which the American colonies fought to win their independence from Great Britain. He married Rebecca Robinson in 1796. Kit was the sixth of ten children. The Carson family soon settled in Howard County, Missouri. When Kit was just nine years old, his father was killed in a tragic accident.

It is doubtful that Carson received much of a formal education, because he remained nearly illiterate, or unable to read and write, his entire life. At the age of fourteen he became an apprentice (a person who works for someone with a specific skill in order to learn that skill) to a saddlemaker. After less than two years, Carson left the saddlemaker and joined a group of traders who were on their way to Santa Fe, New Mexico.

### *Life on the western frontier*

Carson's career in the West spanned the years from 1825 to 1868, a period of rapid national expansion, exploration, and settlement. From 1827 to 1829 young Carson spent time working as a cook, driving a wagon, interpreting Spanish, and mining copper. In August 1829 he gained invaluable experience after joining a trapping party



*Kit Carson.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

bound for California. For the next year and a half Carson trapped animals along the streams of Arizona and southern California.

In 1831 Carson returned to New Mexico, where he immediately joined up with the experienced trapper, Thomas Fitzpatrick (c. 1799–1854). With Fitzpatrick's men, Carson headed north into the rugged central Rocky Mountains. For the next ten years, Carson worked as a trapper all over western America in what is today known as Utah, Colorado, Wyoming, Idaho, and Montana. During this time spent in the wilderness of North America, Carson learned everything he needed to know in order to become a respected guide.

In 1836 Carson married an Arapaho Indian woman. The couple had two children, only one of whom—a daughter—survived. After his first wife died, Carson married a Cheyenne woman. The marriage did not last, and Carson took his daughter to St. Louis, Missouri, to further her education. For the next eight years, Carson split his time between his daughter in St. Louis and his trapping duties in Taos, New Mexico.

### ***A turning point***

In 1842 Carson's fate arrived by steamboat when explorer John C. Frémont landed in St. Louis. Frémont came to St. Louis looking to hire the well-known guide Andrew S. Drips to lead his expedition to the Wind River in Wyoming. Unable to find Drips, Frémont chose Carson instead. From June until September, Carson guided Frémont's party west through South Pass to the Wind River Mountains and then back to Missouri.

Over the next several years, Carson, along with Fitzpatrick, worked as a guide for Frémont on three expeditions through Oregon and California. The timing could not have been better for Frémont—or for Carson. The American public was fascinated with life in the West and the tales of hostile Indian tribes and unsettled land that could be found on the western frontier. Frémont's published reports on his expeditions soon became famous, as did Kit Carson. Although many of Carson's adventures would become wildly exaggerated, no one could deny his contributions to the settling of the American West. Many of Carson's accomplishments were popularized in Dr. De Witt C. Peters's 1858 book, *The Life and Adventure of Kit Carson, the Nestor of the Rocky Mountains*. (By referring to

Carson as a *nestor*, Dr. Peters meant that Carson was is a leader in his field.)

### ***A soldier's career***

In 1846 Carson served in California with Frémont at the outbreak of the Mexican War (a war fought between Mexico and the United States from 1846 until 1848 that resulted in U.S. ownership of much of the area that is now known as the American Southwest, which had formerly been part of Mexico). During this time his duties were quite dangerous, as he carried dispatches, or messages, between command posts in enemy territory. When Carson was sent to Washington with dispatches, he was stopped by General Stephen W. Kearny (1794–1848) in New Mexico. Kearny ordered Carson to lead his troops west to California. At the battle of San Pascual (1846), with Kearny's tired men losing the battle, Carson, along with two others, was able to slip through enemy lines to call for reinforcements. Although Kearny's men were unable to take San Pascual, the reinforced army soon captured San Diego, San Gabriel, and Los Angeles, California, in rapid succession. Later, President James K. Polk (1795–1849) called Carson a hero and appointed him lieutenant in the mounted (on horseback) rifle regiment. However, the Senate rejected this appointment, and Carson returned to Taos.

### ***Career as an Indian agent***

By 1849 Carson had settled near Taos to farm and do occasional scouting for army units fighting hostile tribes. Carson also served in the Office of Indian Affairs, first as an agent and then as a superintendent of Indian affairs for the Colorado Territory. In 1854 he became

the agent for several southwestern tribes. For years, Carson worked to keep peace and to ensure fair treatment of Native Americans.

While working for the Office of Indian Affairs, Carson often clashed with his superior, Territorial Governor David Meriwether. Carson disagreed with many of Meriwether's policies and thought that Native Americans were being treated unfairly. In 1856 their conflicts boiled over when Meriwether suspended Carson. Meriwether later arrested Carson, charging him with disobedience and cowardice. Carson soon apologized and got his job back working as an agent.

### **Back in the army**

With the outbreak of the Civil War (1861–65), Carson left his position with Indian Affairs and was soon appointed a lieutenant colonel commanding the First New Mexico Volunteer Regiment. The Civil War was a war between the northern states and southern states that was fought to decide whether or not slavery would be allowed in new territories, and whether or not the South would leave the Union to form an independent nation. During the war, Carson fought against invading Confederates (soldiers from the southern states) at the battle of Val Verde. Carson also directed successful campaigns against the Apache and Navajo from 1862 until 1864. In his last battle he defeated the Kiowa, Comanche, and Apache tribes in the Texas panhandle. In 1865 he was appointed as brigadier general (an army officer who is above a colonel) of volunteers. For the next two years Carson held assignments in the West until he left the army in 1867.

In 1868 Carson was appointed superintendent of Indian affairs for the Colorado Ter-

ritory. He never had a chance to work in this position. He died May 23, 1868, at Fort Lyon, Colorado.

Although Carson's later career serving his country in the army and establishing relations with Native Americans was impressive, the name Kit Carson will forever bring to mind thoughts of the wild frontier and westward expansion.

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**RACHEL  
CARSON**

**Born:** May 27, 1907

**Springdale, Pennsylvania**

**Died:** April 14, 1964

**Silver Spring, Maryland**

*American biologist and writer*





Rachel Carson.

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**R**achel Carson was an American biologist and writer whose book *Silent Spring* awakened the public to the dangers of pollution and its impact on the environment. Because of her work, she is considered a pioneer in the modern environmental movement.

#### **Childhood and education**

Rachel Louise Carson was born May 27, 1907, in Springdale, Pennsylvania. A quiet child who kept to herself, she spent long hours learning about nature through her mother, a musician and schoolteacher. Carson's mother also inspired her daughter's

interest in literature, and at a very young age Carson knew she wanted to become a writer. Carson sealed her ambitions to write when, at the age of ten, she published her first piece in a national children's magazine.

In high school, Carson was an intelligent and motivated student who impressed her teachers. In college Carson studied English at the Pennsylvania College for Women in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. But she changed her major to biology after rediscovering her love for science. After earning her undergraduate degree, she studied creative writing at Johns Hopkins University, where she earned a master's degree. She completed her postgraduate studies at the Woods Hole Marine Biological Laboratory in Massachusetts.

#### **Biologist to celebrated writer**

In 1936 Carson served as an aquatic biologist with the U.S. Bureau of Fisheries. A year later Carson published a well-received essay in the national publication *Atlantic Monthly*, which would ultimately lead to her first book, *Under the Sea Wind* (1941). She soon became editor-in-chief of the Fish and Wildlife Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, a department dedicated to the conservation (protection) of wildlife. During this time she honed her writing skills, which focused on wildlife conservation. In 1951 *The Sea around Us* brought its author instant fame. At the top of the best-seller list for thirty-nine weeks, it was translated into thirty languages. For the book the shy, soft-spoken Carson received the National Book Award, the Gold Medal of the New York Zoological Society, and the John Burroughs Medal.

The following year Carson left the government to undertake full-time writing and

research. As a scientist and as an observant human being, the overwhelming effects of technology upon the natural world increasingly disturbed her. She wrote at the time: "I suppose my thinking began to be affected soon after atomic science [an energy process which can have an extreme effect on the environment] was firmly established . . . It was pleasant to believe that much of Nature was forever beyond the tampering reach of man: I have now opened my eyes and my mind. I may not like what I see, but it does no good to ignore it."

### ***Takes on pollution***

When *Silent Spring* appeared in 1962, the poetic pen and scientific mind of Carson produced an impact equaled by few scientists. In fact, she had aroused an entire nation. More than a billion dollars worth of chemical sprays were being sold and used in America each year. Carson traced the course of chlorinated hydrocarbons, a harmful substance found in the pesticides (chemicals used to protect crops from insects), through energy cycles and food chains. She learned that highly toxic (deadly) materials, contaminating the environment and lasting for many years in waters and soils, also tended to build up in the human body. Insect species that were the targets for these poisons began developing immunities (resistance) to pesticides, and because of these poisons in the insects, birds were not reproducing. In fact, the entire food chain and environmental balance was becoming disrupted because of these chemicals. Carson proposed strict limitations on spraying programs and an accelerated research effort to develop natural and biological controls for harmful insects.

The pesticide industry reacted with a massive campaign to damage the reputation of Carson and her findings. Firmly and gently, she spent the next two years educating the public at large. "I think we are challenged as mankind has never been challenged before," she once said, "to prove our maturity and our mastery, not of nature, but of ourselves." She died on April, 14, 1964, in Silver Spring, Maryland. Though her work was just beginning at the time of her death, through her pen Carson opened the eyes of a nation and inspired environmental activism in a country that was rapidly losing its own natural resources.

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## JIMMY CARTER

**Born: October 1, 1924**

**Plains, Georgia**

*American president, governor, and humanitarian*

Jimmy Carter was a state senator, governor, and the first U.S. president to be elected from the deep South in 132 years, serving one term (1977–81). In 1980 he lost



*Jimmy Carter.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

his bid for reelection but continues to be a much admired peacemaker and human rights leader at home and abroad.

### ***Childhood and education***

James Earl Carter was born in Plains, Georgia, on October 1, 1924. He was the first child of farmer and small businessman James Earl Carter and former nurse Lillian Gordy Carter. At five, Jimmy already showed a talent for business: he began to sell peanuts on the streets of Plains. At the age of nine, Carter invested his earnings in five bales of cotton, which he stored for several years and then sold at a profit. With this money he was able to purchase five old houses in Plains.

Upon his graduation from high school in 1941, Carter enrolled in Georgia Southwestern College, but in 1942 he was appointed to the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis. Carter entered the academy in 1943 and showed a special talent for electronics and naval tactics. He would eventually work on the nation's first nuclear-powered submarines. During his time in the navy he also met Rosalynn Smith (1927–), whom he married on July 7, 1947. The couple had four children.

### ***Civic activist to politician***

Carter wanted to become an admiral (a high-ranking officer in the navy), but in 1953, following his father's death from cancer, he returned to Plains to manage the family-owned farm and peanut warehouses. In order to keep up with modern farming methods, he studied at the Agricultural Experimental Station in Tifton, Georgia. During these years in Plains, Carter was active in a number of civic organizations. He set himself apart from others by showing his concern for members of all races, which could be traced back to his mother's refusal to accept many of the deep South's racist (dislike or disrespect of a person based on the color of his or her skin) traditions.

Carter's interest in politics may have come from his father, who had served in the Georgia legislature. In 1962 he ran for a seat in the Georgia Senate and defeated his Republican opponent by approximately one thousand votes. As a state senator, Carter promised to read every single bill that came up. When it looked as if he would not be able to keep this promise because of the large number of bills, he took a speed reading course to solve the problem. He earned a rep-

utation as an effective legislator and was reelected to the state senate in 1964.

In 1966 Carter decided to run for governor of Georgia. He lost to Lester Maddox (1915–) in the Democratic primary election. Although disappointed, Carter pushed forward. Between 1966 and 1970 he traveled throughout the state, making close to eighteen hundred speeches, studying the problems of Georgia, and campaigning. In the 1970 election, Carter's hard work paid off and he won Georgia's top position.

### ***Governor of Georgia***

When he was elected governor, Carter announced his intention to help all poor and needy Georgians, regardless of race. This speech won Carter national attention for the first time. He called for an end to prejudice (unequal treatment based on a person's race) and for education, jobs, and "simple justice" for the poor. As governor, he signed into law a bill ensuring that all areas of Georgia would have equal state aid for education. Carter also worked to cut government waste, combining three hundred state agencies into only thirty. The number of African American appointees on state boards and agencies increased, and the number of African American state employees rose by 40 percent. During his term, laws were passed to protect historical sites, to conserve the environment, and to encourage openness in government.

Carter became increasingly involved in national Democratic Party politics. In 1972 he headed the Democratic Governors Campaign Committee, and in 1974 he was chair of the Democratic National Campaign Committee. That same year Carter officially declared his intention to run for president in 1976, even

though he was still little known outside the state of Georgia. As late as October 1975 a public opinion poll on possible Democratic candidates did not even list his name. Carter's rise to national prominence began in January 1976 with his intensive and industrious campaigning. By March he was the top choice among Democrats to run for president.

### ***The 1976 election***

Carter's success began with a victory in the New Hampshire primary in February. He convinced voters that he would be able to act independently and effectively. In his campaign he also vowed to restore moral leadership to the presidency. After the Watergate incident, when Richard Nixon (1913–1994) stepped down as president rather than face criminal charges, this was what people wanted to hear. Carter was elected on the first ballot at the 1976 Democratic National Convention.

With his running mate, Minnesota Democrat Walter Mondale (1928–), Carter made unemployment a central issue of his campaign, urging the creation of jobs through increased federal spending and the growth of business. Carter promised to reorganize the many offices and departments of the federal government and to develop a national energy policy. He also agreed to pardon those who had refused to fight in the Vietnam War (1955–75; this civil war between South Vietnam, supported by the United States, and the Communist forces of North Vietnam had just ended and was long considered a U.S. failure.) America's involvement through the troubled years took the form of military funds, advisors, and thousands of soldiers.

When Carter defeated Gerald Ford (1913–) in the general election, he became

the first president from the deep South since Zachary Taylor (1784–1850). Carter's victory margin came from African Americans, from those with low incomes, and from others who thought that they were being hurt by the policies of the Ford administration. One of Carter's challenges was to reach out to groups that had not really supported him, such as Catholics and Italian Americans.

### *His record as president*

Carter's presidency began well. Congress approved his plans to dissolve or combine federal agencies that provided similar services and passed legislation aimed at lowering income taxes. In August 1977 his proposal to establish the Department of Energy as a new executive department was adopted. Unfortunately, inflation (a general increase in prices that reduces the value of money) continued to rise during his term, reaching 15 percent by mid-1980. Carter became more unpopular as a result. A July 1980 poll showed that only 21 percent of those responding approved of the job he was doing, the lowest rating recorded for any American president.

Carter's term was also marked by mixed success in foreign affairs. In 1977 he attracted worldwide attention and praise when he cut off United States aid to nations believed to have committed human rights violations. However, two 1977 treaties dealing with the Panama Canal earned him mixed reviews. The treaties promised to give control of the canal to Panama at the end of 1999 and ensured neutrality of the waterway. Carter also helped in the creation of a peace treaty between Israel and Egypt in 1979 at Camp David, Maryland. With Carter as witness, President Anwar el-Sadat (1918–1981) and Prime Minister Men-

achem Begin (1913–1992) signed a pact that ended war between the two countries.

Carter's most dramatic moments in foreign policy affairs began in November 1979 when a group of students seized the United States embassy in Teheran, Iran, and took fifty-two U.S. citizens captive. When Carter's responses—including stopping all imports from Iran—did not resolve the situation, he ordered an armed rescue in April 1980, which failed and led to the deaths of eight marines. The hostages were finally released on the last day that Carter held office. Carter had run for reelection in 1980, but he was defeated by former California governor Ronald Reagan (1911–) by a wide margin.

### *After the presidency*

Carter has devoted his career since leaving office to trying to achieve peace and help humanity. In 1981 he established the Carter Center, which sponsors a number of programs, including the promotion of human rights in third-world countries and maintaining detailed medical records for local Atlanta children. The Carter Center also monitors elections in newly democratic countries and works to fight disease. In addition to these efforts, Carter and his wife, Rosalynn, have spent their summers volunteering to build housing for the poor through the Habitat for Humanity organization.

Carter remains involved in international relations as well. In 1990 he persuaded Nicaraguan opposition leader Daniel Ortega (1945–) to step down and let an elected president step in. In the early 1990s Carter brought messages from Somali warlord Mohamed Farrah Aidid (1934–1996) to President Bill Clinton (1946–) that helped avoid a

military conflict. In June 1994 Carter negotiated with North Korean dictator Kim Il Sung (1912–1994) to freeze his country's nuclear weapons program.

Carter had been criticized for his handling of foreign relations during his presidency, but his tireless work on all kinds of issues since leaving office has earned him great praise. In 1999 Carter was awarded with the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the nation's highest honor for private citizens. In 2002 he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for his continuing efforts to bring peace to warring countries, to advance human rights, and to promote economic development in poor countries.

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## **GEORGE WASHINGTON CARVER**

**Born:** c. 1864

**Diamond Grove, Missouri**

**Died:** January 5, 1943

**Tuskegee, Alabama**

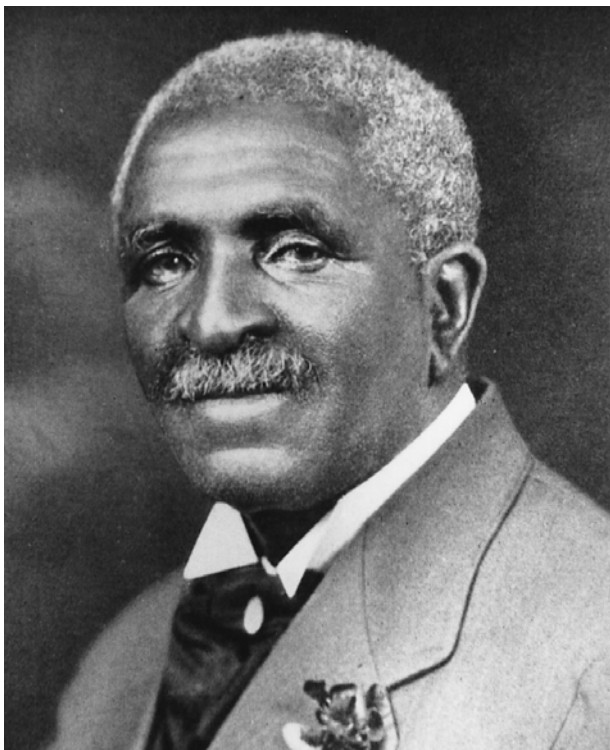
*African American agricultural chemist*

**G**eorge Washington Carver started his life as a slave and worked his way to becoming a respected and world-renowned agricultural chemist. He helped develop agricultural techniques used around the world.

### **Early years**

George Washington Carver was born in Kansas Territory near Diamond Grove, Missouri, during the bloody struggle between free-soilers and slaveholders. His father, a slave on a nearby farm, was killed shortly before Carver was born. Carver himself became the kidnap victim of night riders while still a baby. With his mother and brother, James, he was held for ransom. Before they were rescued, his mother died. Moses Carver, a German farmer, ransomed (traded) the infant Carver for a \$300 racehorse. Thus he was orphaned and left in the custody of a white guardian from early childhood.

Carver was a talented student, but even his talents could not overcome racism (feelings of racial superiority). He was not allowed to attend the local schools because of his color. Instead, Carver had responsibility for his own education. His first school was in Neosho, Kansas. Neosho had once been a Confederate capital. Now it had become the site of the Lincoln School for African American children, a school for black children some nine miles from Carver's home. Every day Carver walked there with his brother James. His first teacher was Stephen S. Frost, an African American. Carver and his brother faithfully went to school for several years. Finally James, tired of formal schooling, quit to become a house painter, but not George.



*George Washington Carver.*

*Reproduced by permission of Fisk University Library.*

He continued until he was seventeen. Then he went on to complete his high school work in Minneapolis, Kansas, and finally graduated in his mid-twenties. At the time Carver had wished to become an artist. His sketch of the rose *Yucca gloriosa* won him a first prize at the World's Columbian Exposition in 1893.

### ***An agricultural education***

Carver applied to study at the Iowa State College of Agricultural and Mechanical Arts, but he was turned down when it was learned that he was of African heritage. He then applied to Simpson College at Indianola, Iowa, where he was the second African

American to be admitted. Tuition was \$12 a year, but it was hard to come by even this small amount. Carver worked as a cook at a hotel in Winterset, Iowa, to raise the money.

After attending Simpson College for three years, he once again applied for admission to Iowa State. He was admitted and was placed in charge of the greenhouse of the horticultural department while doing graduate work. Carver quickly won the respect and admiration of the faculty and student body. He earned his master's degree in agriculture in 1896, and, by the time he left, Carver was an expert at mycology (the study of fungi) and plant cross-fertilization.

### ***A career begins***

In April 1896 Carver received a unique offer from the African American educator Booker T. Washington (1856–1915) to teach at Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. Said Washington: "I cannot offer you money, position or fame. The first two you have. The last from the position you now occupy you will no doubt achieve. These things I now ask you to give up. I offer you in their place: work—hard, hard work, the task of bringing a people from degradation, poverty, and waste to full manhood. Your department exists only on paper and your laboratory will have to be in your head."

Carver accepted the challenge. He arrived at the tiny railroad station at Chehaw, Alabama, on October 8, 1896. In a report to Washington he wrote: "8:00 to 9:00 A.M., Agricultural Chemistry; 9:20 to 10:00 A.M., the Foundation of Colors (for painters); 10:00 to 11:00 A.M., a class of farmers. Additional hours in the afternoon. In addition I must oversee and rather imperfectly super-

vise seven industrial classes, scattered here and there over the grounds. I must test all seeds, examine all fertilizers, based upon an examination of soils in different plots.”

Through the years Carver gained a national, as well as an international, reputation. Chinese and Japanese farmers raised many unique problems for him. Questions were referred to him from Russia, India, Europe, and South America. He later had to turn down a request to journey to the Soviet Union, the country that once consisted of Russia and other smaller nations. In 1916 he was elected a member of the Royal Society for the Encouragement of Arts in England, the world’s oldest scientific organization. Later, in 1918, he went to the War Department in Washington, D.C., to demonstrate his findings on the sweet potato. He was awarded the Spingarn Medal of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) in 1923.

### *The personality of Carver*

An early close friend of Carver was Henry A. Wallace; the pair knew each other for forty-seven years. Wallace said that Carver often took him on botanical (relating to plants) expeditions, and it was he who first introduced Wallace to the mysteries of plant fertilizers. Carver was a shy and modest bachelor, an unmarried man. An attack of whooping cough (a contagious disease that attacks the respiratory system) as a child had permanently caused him to have a high-pitched tenor voice. He considered it a high duty to attend classes and was seldom absent. In 1908 he returned to the West to visit his ninety-six-year-old guardian, Moses Carver, and to visit the grave of his brother, James, in Missouri.

A careful and modest scientist, Carver was not without a sense of humor. When one of his students, hoping to play a trick on him, showed him a bug with the wings of a fly and the body of a mosquito, Carver was quick to label it “a humbug.”

### *Developments and world fame*

Carver utilized the materials at hand. He was interested in crop rotation and soil conservation. From the clay soil of Alabama he extracted a full range of dyestuffs, including a brilliant blue. He created sixty products from the pecan. From the common sweet potato he developed a cereal coffee, a shoe polish, paste, oils—about one hundred products. From the peanut he came up with over 145 products. Carver suggested peanuts, pecans, and sweet potatoes replace cotton as money crops. He published all of his findings in a series of nearly fifty bulletins.

The testimony of Carver before the congressional House Ways and Means Committee in 1921 led to the passage of the Fordney-McCumber Tariff Bill of 1922. Scheduled to speak a short ten minutes, he was granted several time extensions because of the intense interest in his presentation. At the lecture he appeared in a greenish-blue suit many seasons old, having refused to invest in a new suit and announced, “They want to hear what I have to say; they will not be interested in how I look.”

In 1935 Carver was chosen to work with the Bureau of Plant Industry of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. He received the Theodore Roosevelt Medal in 1939 for distinguished achievement in science. During his lifetime Carver had made many friends. Automobile manufacturer Henry Ford (1863–



1947) was his frequent host. Carver was also a treasured friend of inventor Thomas A. Edison (1847–1931). It was Edison who offered to make him independent with his own laboratories and an annual stipend (fixed payment) of \$50 thousand. Other famous friends included horticulturist Luther Burbank (1849–1926), industrialist Harvey Firestone (1868–1938), and naturalist John Burroughs (1837–1921). He was also a friend of three presidents: Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919), Calvin Coolidge (1872–1933), and Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882–1945).

Carver had earned the salary of \$125 a month from the beginning until the end of his service at Tuskegee Institute, which spanned forty-six years. He might have had much more. In 1940 he gave his life savings, \$33 thousand, to establish the George Washington Carver Foundation at Tuskegee Institute to continue research in agriculture and chemistry. He later left his entire estate to the foundation, a total of about \$60 thousand. He died on January 5, 1943.

At the dedication of a building in his honor at Simpson College, Ralph Bunche (1904–1971), a Nobel Prize winner, pronounced Carver to be “the least imposing celebrity the world has ever known.” Carver’s birthplace was made a national monument on July 14, 1953.

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## PABLO CASALS

**Born:** December 29, 1876

**Vendrell, Catalonia, Spain**

**Died:** October 23, 1973

**San Juan, Puerto Rico**

*Spanish composer, cellist, and conductor*

Pablo Casals was regarded as one of the greatest cello players and composers (writers of music) of the twentieth century. He was also an active protester against oppressive governments (those that misuse their power and mistreat citizens), including that of the Spanish tyrant Francisco Franco (1892–1975).

#### **Early life**

Pablo Casals was born on December 29, 1876, in Vendrell, in the Catalan region of Spain. He was the second of eleven children of Carlos Casals and Pilar Defillo de Casals. Casals’s father, the local church organist, would play the piano while the infant Casals rested his head against it and sang along. By the age of four Casals was playing the piano, and at five he joined the church choir. At six he was composing songs with his father, and by the age of nine he could play the violin and organ. From the

age of ten Casals began each day with a walk, taking inspiration from nature. He would then play two Johann Sebastian Bach (1685–1750) pieces on the piano when he returned home.

### ***Masters the cello***

Casals became interested in the cello after seeing the instrument in a music recital at age eleven; soon, his father built him one. His parents argued about his future; his father wanted him to study carpentry, but his mother would not hear of it and enrolled him in the Municipal School of Music in Barcelona, Spain. Casals clashed with his strict instructors, preferring to play the cello in his own, more expressive, manner. His progress was extraordinary, and Casals's new way of playing made the cello a more popular instrument.

Among those impressed by Casals was the Spanish composer Isaac Albéniz (1860–1909). After hearing Casals play, Albéniz gave him a letter of introduction to Count Guillermo de Morphy, secretary to the Queen Regent of Spain, Maria Cristine. In 1894 Casals traveled to Madrid, Spain, and gave concerts for the queen and her court. Over the next few years his reputation spread as he played with various orchestras in Madrid. With his formal debut as a concert soloist in Paris, France, in 1899, Casals's career was assured.

### ***New respect for Bach's music***

Sometime in 1890, while Casals and his father were in a Barcelona bookstore, he found a volume of Bach's six suites (arrangements of music) for solo cello. Previously the suites were considered merely musical exercises, but Casals saw in them something deeper. He studied and practiced the suites every day for a dozen years before performing



*Pablo Casals.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

them publicly; he continued to play at least one suite every day for the rest of his life.

Casals's performance of the suites shocked listeners by correcting the previously held belief that Bach's solo music for strings had no warmth or artistic value. Casals's love of Bach's music carried over into the rest of his life. As he told José Maria Corredor in *Conversations With Casals*, "I am everyday more convinced that the main-spring of any human enterprise must be moral strength and generosity." Casals came to understand the suffering of the poor as he walked the streets of Barcelona. He vowed to use his music to help his fellow people.

***Silenced cello in protest***

Casals often wrote letters and organized concerts on behalf of the oppressed, and he refused to perform in countries, such as the Soviet Union, Germany, and Italy, whose governments mistreated their citizens. After the Spanish Civil War (1936–39), when General Francisco Franco took power, Casals announced he would never return to Spain while Franco was in charge. He settled in Prades, France, and gave occasional concerts until 1946, when, to take a stand against tyrants such as Franco, Casals vowed never to perform again.

However, encouraged by friends, Casals resumed playing in 1950, participating in the Prades Festival organized to honor Bach. At the end of the festival and every concert he gave after that, Casals played “Song of the Birds,” a Catalonian folk song, to protest the continued oppression in Spain. In 1956 he settled in Puerto Rico and started the Casals Festival, which led to the creation of a symphony orchestra and a music school on the island. Casals never returned to Spain.

Casals also continued to refuse to perform in countries that officially recognized the Franco government. Until his death in 1973, Casals made only one exception—in 1961 he performed at the White House for U.S. President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963), a man he greatly admired. In 1971, at the age of ninety-five, he performed his “Hymn of the United Nations” before the United Nations General Assembly. Casals sought to inspire harmony among people, with both his cello and his silence.

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## MARY CASSATT

**Born:** May 23, 1845

**Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania**

**Died:** June 14, 1926

**Mesnil-Beaufresne, France**

*American painter and artist*

American painter Mary Cassatt is considered a member of the French impressionists, a nineteenth-century style that emphasized impressions of scenes or objects. Best known for her series of paintings of a mother and child, she also portrayed fashionable society.

***Early life and career***

Mary Stevenson Cassatt was born in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, on May 23, 1845, the second of Robert and Katherine Johnson Cassatt’s four children. As a child she lived for a time in France. The family then moved to Germany so that one son could pursue his studies in engineering, while another son

could gain special medical attention. Upon returning to the United States in 1855, Mary studied at the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. In 1866, against her father's wishes, she began her travels in Italy, Spain, and Holland. She finally settled in Paris, France, where she shocked her parents by revealing her intentions to pursue a career as a painter.

In 1866 Cassatt began her studies in France, where she came to know other famed French painters, such as Charles Chaplin and Thomas Couture (1815–1879). After a pair of rejections, she exhibited at the Salon (French art galleries) and met the famed painter Edgar Degas (1834–1917), who later became her mentor (advisor).

### *Soaring career*

Despite Cassatt's success at the Salon, her heart lay with the impressionists, and in 1877, at Degas's suggestion, she joined the group and exhibited with them in 1879. Her work sold well, particularly in Philadelphia, and she in turn bought paintings by the French impressionists. She also helped American friends, such as the Havemeyers, form their collections of impressionist paintings. Cassatt remained strongly American, as do many expatriates (those living abroad). She wrote the American painter J. Alden Weir (1852–1919) that “at some future time I shall see New York the artists' ground.”

Cassatt's brother, Alexander, brought his family to Paris in 1880, the first of many trips. Although she never married, she was enchanted by her nieces and nephews and excelled in painting children, who dominate her subject matter. Although her early works were done in an impressionist style, she



Mary Cassatt.

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

remains known as the painter and poet of the nursery.

### *Painting style*

Cassatt stopped being an impressionist painter midway through her career. Her early works portray the delicacy, the effects, the play of light and shadow of the style, but she never seemed to use broken colors and her use of complementary colors was slight. Paintings like *La Lo* have impressionistic qualities and have the instant effect of being caught out of the corner of the eye. Her paintings of mothers and children, however, are figurative and three-dimensional. The

drawing is classical and complete, and the color, far from being light and separated into its component parts, is flat and sometimes rather sharp, much like the Japanese prints that influenced her so much. These careful figure studies, completely finished, seem to exist entirely in the atmosphere of the nursery, with no sound except the little cries.

The paintings of Mary Cassatt, filled with light and joy, give a false impression of this strong-minded and somewhat difficult woman. She was at her best in her relations with other artists, for only in this environment did she consider herself among her intellectual equals. In later life she suffered from ill health and failing eyesight and was totally blind at her death. She died in her home at Mesnil-Beaufresne, France, on June 14, 1926.

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## VERNON CASTLE

**Born:** May 2, 1887  
Norwich, England

**Died:** February 15, 1918  
Fort Benbrook, Texas  
*English dancer*

## IRENE CASTLE

**Born:** April 17, 1893  
New Rochelle, New York  
**Died:** January 29, 1969  
Eureka Springs, Arkansas  
*American dancer*

**B**allroom dancers Vernon and Irene Castle led the craze for ragtime and Broadway routines adopted as social dances in the years before World War I (1914–18).

#### **Early years**

Vernon Castle was born Vernon William Blythe in Norwich, England, on May 2, 1887. His parents were William and Jane Blythe. Although he graduated from Birmingham University with a degree in engineering, he also worked as a magician in clubs and at private parties. He moved to New York with his sister Coralie and her husband Laurence Grossmith, who were actors. Although he had his engineering degree, Blythe soon turned to show business and adopted the last name Castle. In the early 1900s Castle appeared in a series of shows produced by Broadway comedian Lew Fields (1867–1941). Castle's specialty was slapstick comedy, a physical comedy with many crude practical jokes. He was often cast as "second banana" to Fields and served as dancing partner to Lotta Faust and Topsy Siegrist.

Irene Castle was born Irene Foote on April 17, 1893, in New Rochelle, New York.

She was the second daughter of Dr. Hubert Townsend Foote and Annie Elroy (Thomas) Foote, whose father was press agent for the Barnum and Bailey Circus. She attended several boarding schools but did not graduate from high school. An energetic youth, Irene rode horses and belonged to the swim team. As a child she studied dancing with Rosetta O'Neill, who taught a generation of children ballroom dancing. When she was a teenager Irene appeared in amateur theatricals, often singing "The Yama-Yama Man"—the song made popular by Bessie McCoy in the Broadway show *The Three Twins* (1908). After becoming a star, Irene credited certain aspects of her style to McCoy, "the high shoulder, the way I held my hands, and anything that looked well about my dancing."

### *The Castles meet*

Vernon and Irene met in 1910 at the Rowing Club in New Rochelle, New York, which by then was a popular place for people in the entertainment business to live. Vernon arranged an audition for Irene with Lew Fields, who hired her as a replacement dancer for *The Summer Widowers*, her first professional appearance. Despite her father's doubts about welcoming an actor into the family, the couple was married in New Rochelle on May 28, 1911. They went to England for their honeymoon to meet Castle's family, but returned to New York in time for the August opening of *The Hen-Pecks*, with both Castles in the cast.

The Castles returned to Europe in 1912 because Vernon was to appear in a French revue (musical show), performing the barber-shop sketch from *The Hen-Pecks*. The revue also included a dance for the Castles set to the



*Vernon and Irene Castle.*

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music of the young songwriter Irving Berlin's (1888–1989) *Alexander's Ragtime Band*. While in Paris the Castles tried out a ballroom dance routine at the Café de Paris and made an instant impression. Later Irene credited their popularity to being "young, clean, married and well-mannered," but their appeal was based also on her appearance, as she was the image of "the girl next door." The Castles projected their delight in dancing with each other and made the new dances look easy.

### *Popularity in America*

The Castles sailed back to New York after six months in Paris. They were booked

(hired) by Louis Martin for his fashionable Café de l'Opera, and New York went dance crazy over the Castles. In the period after 1910, when the Castles were busy developing their many dances—the Texas tommy, foxtrot, grizzly bear, and others—the dance and musical style of African Americans had started to become a popular part of American life. The Castles were considered the first white entertainers to hire African American musicians.

The Castles were cast in Charles Dillingham's 1912 Broadway production of *The Lady of the Slipper*, but they left the show. Next came *The Sunshine Girl* (1913) and the opening of Castle House, their dancing school across from the Ritz Hotel and Sans Souci, a supper club (a place that offers food and entertainment), in New York. Later they opened Castles in the Air on the roof of the 44th Street Theatre. Vernon taught dancing to fashionable ladies during the day and performed with his wife in their current Broadway show at night. In 1914 the Castles made a silent feature film, *The Whirl of Life*, loosely based on their own rise to fame. They also made a series of short films of their own dances.

Irene became a fashion leader. When she bobbed her hair, millions of women followed. Irene's light, floating "Castle frocks," headache band, and Dutch bonnet were widely photographed, described in the journals, and copied. She endorsed (supported) fashion designs and sewing patterns through the *Ladies Home Journal* and Butterick Patterns.

The Castles opened on Broadway in Irving Berlin's *Watch Your Step* (December 8, 1914, New Amsterdam Theatre). Vernon Castle played the role of Joseph Lilyburn, a

dance teacher. Irene Castle played herself in a number with the boys chorus, "Show Us How To Do The Foxtrot." The hit of the show, however, was Berlin's "Syncopated Walk," which gave America a sample of the jazz music to come in the decade ahead.

### ***Vernon goes to war***

After the start of World War I (a war in which Germany fought against European powers and the United States to control Europe), Vernon, who was a British citizen, grew restless as the dark news poured in from Europe. He left *Watch Your Step* in 1915. The Castles gave two farewell performances at the Hippodrome in New York with an orchestra led by John Philip Sousa (1854–1932). Vernon sailed for England, where he joined the Royal Air Force.

While Vernon was away, Irene continued playing in *Watch Your Step* until 1916, then made *Patria*, a fifteen-part silent film. (She appeared in sixteen more films before 1923.) Vernon became an aerial photographer and was awarded for bravery. He was killed in a plane crash at Fort Benbrook, Texas, on February 15, 1918, on a training mission with a student pilot.

### ***Irene carries on***

Irene appeared in vaudeville (stage performance with varying acts) with William Reardon in an act that Fred Astaire helped create. Her public career ended by 1923, when she married her third husband, Frederick McLaughlin, and moved to Chicago. (Her second marriage, to Robert E. Treman, ended in divorce.) The McLaughlins had two children. Irene married her fourth husband, George Enzinger, after McLaughlin's death.

In 1939 Irene acted as adviser to the Fred Astaire-Ginger Rogers film *The Story of Vernon and Irene Castle*. She also performed in several summer stock plays. Her chief interest in later life was in the field of animal rescue work.

Irene Castle died in Eureka Springs, Arkansas, on January 29, 1969. She is buried next to Vernon Castle at Woodlawn Cemetery, New York.

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## FIDEL CASTRO

**Born: August 13, 1926**

**Birán, Oriente Province, Cuba**

*Cuban revolutionary and prime minister*

**F**idel Castro is the Cuban prime minister and first secretary of the Communist party of Cuba. A lawyer by training, Castro led the Cuban Revolution and transformed the island into the first communist state in the Western Hemisphere.

### **Young Castro and campus activist**

Fidel Castro Ruz was born on August 13, 1926, on his family's successful sugar planta-

tion near Birán, Oriente Province, Cuba. Castro's parents had not planned to send their young son to school, but he was so set on getting an education that he talked them into letting him go when he was only six or seven years old. Castro studied in Jesuit schools in Oriente and in Havana, Cuba. He was a motivated student who did well in agriculture, history, and Spanish, and he was also an exceptional athlete. Meanwhile he showed little interest in socializing.

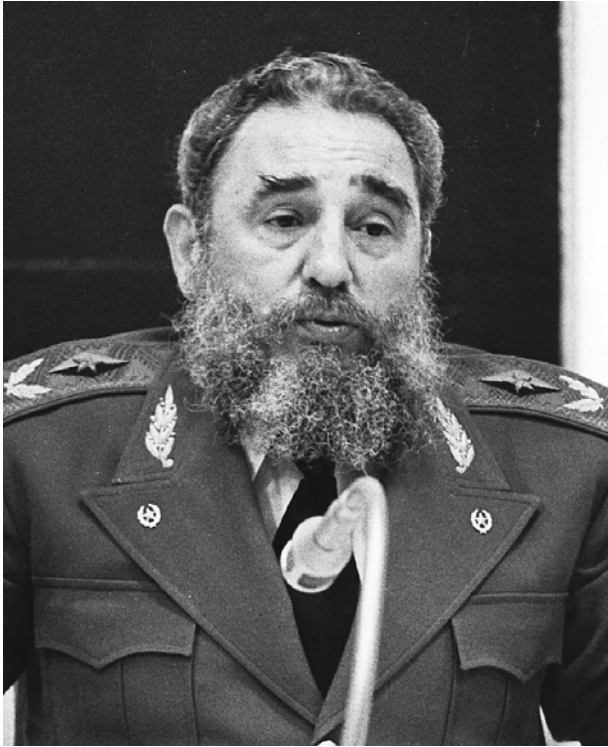
In 1945 Castro entered law school at the University of Havana, where student activism, violence, and gang fights were common. Castro soon joined the activists and associated with one of the gangs, the Unión Insurreccional Revolucionaria. Although police suspected him of the murder of a rival student leader and other violent actions, nothing was proven. Castro developed a reputation for his personal ambition and public speaking ability, yet he never became a well-known student leader. On several occasions he was defeated in student elections.

### **A taste of revolution**

In 1947 Castro temporarily left the university in order to join an expedition led by writer Juan Bosch to overthrow the government of Dominican dictator Rafael Trujillo (1891–1961). The coup was called off during the ocean voyage to Dominica. Castro jumped into the shark-infested waters and swam to shore carrying a gun over his head.

The following year Castro participated in one of the most controversial episodes of his life: the Bogotazo, a series of riots in Bogotá, Colombia, following the assassination of Liberal party leader Jorge E. Gaitán (1902–1948). He joined the mobs and roamed the





*Fidel Castro.*

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streets, distributing anti-United States material and stirring a revolt. Pursued by Colombian authorities, the Cuban students sought asylum, or protection, in the Cuban embassy. Afterwards, Castro flew back to Havana and resumed his law studies.

At the university Castro was exposed to different ideologies (ideas shared by a class). The ideas of fascism (a strong central government headed by one absolute ruler) and communism (where goods and services are owned by the government and distributed among the people) were widely discussed. Castro soon found a calling with Cuba's Orthodox party, which stressed economic inde-

pendence, political liberty, social justice, and an end to corruption. Castro also became a devoted follower of the party's charismatic leader, Eduardo Chibás.

While still a student, Castro married Mirta Díaz-Balart, a philosophy student whose wealthy family had political ties to powerful Cuban military leader Fulgencio Batista (1901–1973). The couple had one son, Fidelito, in 1949. Because Castro had no income with which to support his family, the marriage eventually ended.

### ***Leading the revolution***

Early in 1952 Castro began campaigning for a seat in congress as a replacement for Chibás. Elections were never held, however. On March 10 General Batista and his army overthrew the regime of Cuban president Carlos Prío Socarrás. For Castro, violence seemed the only way to oppose the military takeover. He organized a group of followers and on July 26, 1953, attacked the Moncada military barracks in Oriente Province. Castro was captured, tried, and sentenced to fifteen years in prison.

After being released by an amnesty (a government pardon) in 1955, Castro was sent to Mexico City, Mexico. There he began organizing an expedition against Batista called the 26th of July Movement. On December 2, 1956, Castro and eighty other men landed in Oriente Province. After encounters with the army, in which all but twelve of his men were killed or captured, Castro fled to the Sierra Maestra. In these mountains, Castro designed a guerrilla operation, where a small band of revolutionaries would attempt to remove Batista.

Castro emerged as the undisputed leader of the anti-Batista movement, and his guerrillas increased their control over rural areas. On April 9, 1958, Castro called a national strike. It was called off after Batista ordered strikers to be shot on sight, causing massive shootings. Soon Batista began losing power within his military.

### ***Revolution changed course***

On January 1, 1959, Castro and his July 26th Movement assumed power and began public trials and executions of “criminals” of the Batista government. On February 15 Castro replaced José Miró Cardona as prime minister and appointed his own brother, Raul, as commander of the armed forces. A powerful speaker and a charismatic leader, Castro began exercising an almost mystical hold over the Cuban masses. As previous revolutionaries had done, he lectured the Cubans on morality and public virtue. He also emphasized his commitment to democracy and social reform, and he promised to hold free elections—all while denying that he was a communist.

Castro confiscated (forcefully took) wealth “illegally” acquired by Batista’s followers. He greatly reduced rents, and passed a law that confiscated inherited property—all moves hinting at Castro’s communist leanings. By the end of 1959 many military leaders left and were replaced by communist radicals. Newspapers critical of these new leaders were quickly silenced.

This internal trend toward a communist agenda appeared in foreign policy too. Castro accused the United States of taking actions against his revolution. Afterwards, Cuba established relations with other communist

countries, mainly the very powerful Soviet Union. On January 3, 1961, U.S. President Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969) broke relations with Cuba.

### ***Declaration of a socialist state***

In April 1961 anti-Castro exiles, supported by the United States under the leadership of its newly elected president, John F. Kennedy (1917–1963), attempted an invasion of Cuba at the Bay of Pigs. The invasion failed. In December 1961 Castro merged all groups that had fought against Batista into the Integrated Revolutionary Organizations. In 1965 it became the Communist Party of Cuba—the island’s only ruling party.

In foreign affairs Castro moved closer to the Soviet Union. In October 1962 Cuban-Soviet relations reached a boiling point during the Cuban Missile Crisis, where the United States faced off with the communist powers over the presence of Soviet-owned nuclear arms in Cuba. When President Kennedy avoided confrontation and directly negotiated the missiles’ removal with Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971), Castro felt humiliated.

### ***Spread of the revolution***

Another source of conflict in Cuban-Soviet relations was Castro’s determination to take his revolution into other countries. After the 1964 Havana Conference, the Soviet Union was temporarily able to slow down Castro’s support for armed struggle in Latin America. But by 1966 Castro founded the Asia-Africa-Latin America People’s Solidarity Organization to promote revolution on three continents.

In July 1967 Castro formed the Latin American Solidarity Organization, which was designed to spark violence in Latin America. Castro's efforts, however, were mostly unsuccessful, as evidenced by the failure of former Cuban revolutionist Che Guevara's (1928–1967) guerrilla campaign in Bolivia in 1967. Nevertheless, Castro's efforts in this regard continued through the 1970s.

### ***Repression culminated in boat lift***

Despite the improvements that Castro brought to Cuba, he was constantly criticized for human rights abuses. Political prisoners crowded Cuban jails, while homosexuals, intellectuals, and others were constant victims of government-sponsored violence.

One of Castro's goals was to remove opposition to his rule, which he accomplished not only with executions and imprisonments, but also through forcing people to leave the country. The largest of these, the Mariel Boat Lift, occurred in response to a riot in Havana. In mid-April of 1980 Castro opened the port of Mariel to outsiders, particularly exiled Cubans living in Miami, Florida, who sailed into port to claim their relatives. Castro took advantage of the situation. He loaded boats with prison inmates, long-term psychiatric patients, and other people whose presence in Cuba was not welcomed. More than 120 thousand Cubans left their homeland for the United States, causing a small crisis upon reaching Miami.

### ***Communism loses steam***

With the collapse of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s, Castro's revolution began to lose momentum. Without support from its

Soviet allies, unemployment and inflation (increase in prices) both grew in Cuba. Castro began pressing the United States to lift the trade embargo (suspension of trade) it had imposed upon Cuba since the revolution. The U.S. government remained firm, however, refusing to negotiate with Cuba on trade matters until Castro ended his form of government.

U.S.-Cuban relations had begun to show signs of warming by the latter part of the 1990s. Castro visited the United States in 1996, and invited Cuban exiles then living in the United States to return to their homeland and start businesses.

In the summer of 2000 a Cuban-U.S. media frenzy erupted when a Cuban mother and her son escaped Cuba on a makeshift boat. The mother died during the trip, but the son, Elian Gonzalez, was rescued and brought to America. Castro was heavily involved in the dispute over custody between Elian's relatives in the United States and his father in Cuba. Elian eventually returned to live with his father in Cuba.

On July 26, 2000, Castro led what may have been the largest government-organized march in Cuban history to protest the United States embargo of Cuba. The march also celebrated the forty-seventh anniversary of the Cuban Revolution.

On August 13, 2001, Castro celebrated his seventy-fifth birthday. The leader of Cuba is said to be showing his age, but he still manages to speak for hours on end and sleeps only a few hours every night. He also named his brother Raul Castro as his successor (the person who will take over for him when he leaves office).

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## WILLA CATHER

**Born:** December 7, 1873

**Winchester, Virginia**

**Died:** April 24, 1947

**New York, New York**

*American author*

The American author Willa Cather is noted for her strong and thoughtful descriptions of prairie life in the last years of the midwestern frontier. Her poetic style was greatly different from other kinds of writing at the time.

**Early life**

Willa Sibert Cather was born in Winchester, Virginia, on December 7, 1873 (although she often lied about her year of birth and other things). She was the first of Charles Fectigue and Mary Virginia Boak Cather's seven children. Her father moved the family to Red Cloud, Nebraska, when Cather was nine years old, where he ran a farm loan

business. Her immediate love for the prairie and her involvement in the lives of Bohemian and Scandinavian immigrants provided her with both the material and a simple manner of expression for her novels.

Although Cather was educated mainly by her mother, she had enough knowledge of English literature and Latin to do excellent work at the University of Nebraska. At this time she became interested in a career in journalism. She began working as a drama critic for newspapers in Lincoln, Nebraska, while still in school. After receiving a degree in 1895, she moved to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and found employment as an editor, drama critic, and high school teacher.

**First efforts**

In 1903 Cather published a collection of poems, *April Twilights*. In 1905 a collection of short stories, *The Troll Garden*, was issued. Neither collection really displayed her talent. Her first novel, *Alexander's Bridge*, the story of an engineer's love for two women, was published in 1912.

With a moving story of the prairie, *O Pioneers!* (1913), Cather at last discovered her subject matter. This tale of Alexandra Bergson, daughter of Swedish settlers, whose devotion to the land and to her younger brother interferes with her own chance for happiness, is a major novel and an important source for Cather's later work. In *Song of the Lark* (1915), she presents the story of a young woman's attempt at artistic accomplishment in a small town. *My Antonia* (1918), generally considered her finest novel, is based on a successful city lawyer's memories of his prairie boyhood and his love for Antonia Shimerda, a bright Bohemian girl.



Willa Cather.

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Cather's next novel, *One of Ours* (1922), about a man who goes to war in order to escape his midwestern farm environment, won the Pulitzer Prize. *A Lost Lady* (1923) tells the story of an educated, thoughtful young woman faced with the materialism (desire for wealth and material goods) of the post-pioneer period. *The Professor's House* (1925) is a study of the problems of youth and middle age. These three novels differ from Cather's earlier studies of prairie life in that the midwestern atmosphere is now described as a force working against the artistic dreams and intellectual development of the characters.

### **New location**

With the passing of the frontier, Cather permanently left the Midwest, both physically and as a source of subject matter for her novels. She lived off and on in New York and Europe until the late 1920s, then she discovered the Southwest desert, which came to serve as a substitute for the prairie. *Death Comes for the Archbishop* (1927) describes the dedicated missionaries (religious workers who travel around to spread the word of their faith to others) in Mexico during the 1850s. *Shadows on the Rock* (1931) is a description of French-Catholic life in seventeenth-century Quebec. Both novels represent Cather's interest in Roman Catholicism and her admiration for the qualities of courage and endurance that she observed in her life.

Willa Cather's devotion to the land and her respect for those rooted to it are key elements of her work. Man and nature are viewed as characters of equal importance in a cosmic drama. Despite her love for the prairie, she realized that neither frontier life nor its people were perfect. She was aware of, and described honestly, the intellectual stagnation (failure to move forward) and small-minded prejudice that existed side by side with the good qualities of frontier life.

In her last years Cather devoted herself to nonfiction and criticism. *Not Under Forty* (1936) contains an expression of her ideas about writing. Partly in order to devote herself to her writing, Cather never married. She died on April 24, 1947, in New York City.

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## CATHERINE OF ARAGON

**Born:** December 16, 1485

**Alcalá de Henares, Spain**

**Died:** January 7, 1536

**Kimbolton, Huntingdon, England**

*Spanish queen consort*

Catherine of Aragon was to represent a political union between a strong and powerful Spain and the up-and-coming England. Instead she became a model of excellence during a stormy period in European history. She was the first wife of King Henry VIII (1491–1547), and she never gave up the crown, even after her husband tried to divorce her in his quest for a son and heir.

### *Early life*

Catherine of Aragon was the last child born to the two reigning monarchs, or rulers, of Spain, King Ferdinand of Aragon (1452–1516) and Queen Isabella of Castile (1451–1504). Catherine was described as a small and plump princess with pink cheeks, light skin, and reddish-gold hair. Her childhood was filled with battles and celebrations, as her parents worked to expand the realm of their influence.

Catherine's education was of great importance to Queen Isabella, who made sure that her daughter studied a wide variety of subjects. Catherine was a dedicated student who was capable of speaking French, Latin, Spanish, and later English. She trained in law, genealogy (the study of family histories), the bible, and history. Catherine also worked to develop her skills in dancing, drawing, and music, and she learned how to embroider, spin, and weave. She had a strong religious upbringing and developed a faith that would play a major role later in her life.

Knowing that marrying their daughters to the royalty of powerful nations could strengthen their foothold in Europe, the king and queen chose these alliances carefully. In May 1499 the first of several wedding ceremonies was held when Catherine was married to Prince Arthur of England, son of Henry VII (1457–1509).

### *Princess and queen*

In 1501 Catherine arrived in England as the Princess of Wales. She was welcomed with great celebration. But five months after their marriage, the Prince of Wales died. The comforts that Catherine had enjoyed as a new bride were soon stripped, as King Henry VII refused to support her. For seven years she was the Princess Dowager (widow) of Wales, no longer under the care of her father and refused care by her father-in-law.

When Henry VII passed away, his second son Henry VIII took the throne. This brought Catherine new hope of a marriage and the chance to take her rightful place as queen of England. Henry VIII went against the advice of his council and took Catherine as his bride, a mere six weeks after taking the



*Catherine of Aragon.*

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throne. Catherine was well received by the English subjects as their Queen.

Catherine loved her young, athletic, and charming husband. Over the next five years, Catherine gave birth to several children, all of whom were stillborn (dead upon birth) or died during infancy. In February 1516 the birth of Princess Mary was much celebrated. With this birth, Catherine hoped that she could give birth to a son that could survive. But in 1518 Catherine had another stillborn daughter. There were no other children. Despite Henry's frustration, he comforted his wife during each loss.

### *Catherine as Regent*

While Henry was away at war, he named Catherine as the Queen Regent of the Kingdom. This showed how much faith he had in her. In this role Catherine assumed the rule of England while Henry was away. She addressed the English army as they prepared for an invasion by the Scottish. Later Catherine sent Henry the bloodied coat of the Scottish King, who was killed in the battle as proof of her devotion and service to him.

Catherine's religious dedication increased with her age, as did her interest in academics. She continued to broaden her knowledge and provide training for her daughter. Education among women became fashionable, partly from Catherine's influence. She also donated large sums of money to several colleges.

### *Rejected by Henry*

King Henry, with no male heir, grew fearful as to who would take over his thrown. It was around this time that Anne Boleyn (c.1507–1536), a lady in waiting to Catherine, captured Henry's interest. Because Boleyn refused to be anything less than queen, Henry needed a way out of his current marriage. In 1527 Henry used a passage from the Bible as proof that his marriage to his dead brother's widow was not viewed favorably by God, and was therefore cursed with no sons. But the religious court did not agree with this claim and Henry was unable to get out of his marriage.

Catherine refused to withdraw from public life and retire to a nunnery. She firmly believed that her marriage to Henry was divinely ordained, or authorized by God, and to interfere with this would endanger her

soul. In the meantime, Henry secretly married Anne Boleyn. In 1533 Catherine's marriage was finally declared invalid by the Archbishop of Canterbury. Stripped of her throne, she was to return to her title of Princess Dowager of Wales by order of the King.

In the end, Henry was cruel to Catherine. He forced her to live in seclusion and refused to allow her to see their daughter, Mary. Catherine died at Kimbolton Castle near Huntington in 1536. Towards the end of her life she maintained herself less in the style of royalty and more like a nun. Catherine was buried in Peterborough Cathedral under the emblem of Wales and Spain, not of England.

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**Born:** April 21, 1729

**Stettin, Prussia (now Szczecin, Poland)**

**Died:** November 6, 1796

**Tsarskoye Selo (now Pushkin, Russia)**

*German-born Russian empress*

The Russian empress Catherine II, known as Catherine the Great, reigned from 1762 to 1796. She expanded the Russian Empire, improved administration, and energetically pursued the policy of Westernization (the process of changing to western ideas and traditions). Under her rule Russia grew strong and rivaled the great powers of Europe and Asia.

#### **Royal childhood**

Catherine II was born Sophia Augusta Frederica in the German city of Stettin, Prussia (now Szczecin, Poland), on April 21, 1729. She was the daughter of Prince Christian August of Anhalt-Zerbst and Princess Johanna Elizabeth of Holstein-Gottorp. Catherine's parents, who had been hoping for a son, did not show a great deal of affection toward their daughter. As a child, Catherine was close to her governess Babette, who Catherine described as, "the kind of governess every child should have." Catherine's education emphasized the subjects considered proper for one of her class: religion (Lutheranism), history, French, German, and music.

When Catherine was fifteen, she went to Russia at the invitation of Empress Elizabeth to meet the heir to the throne, the Grand Duke Peter (1728–1762), an immature and disagreeable youth of sixteen. Soon after Catherine converted to the Russian Orthodox faith, she and the young Grand Duke were married in 1745.

## CATHERINE THE GREAT





*Catherine the Great.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

The marriage turned out to be an unhappy one in which there was little evidence of love or even affection. Peter was soon unfaithful to Catherine, and after a time she became unfaithful to him. Whether Peter was the father of Paul and Anna, the two children recorded as their offspring, remains a question.

However, her loveless marriage did not overshadow her intellectual and political interests. A sharp-witted and cultured young woman, she read widely, particularly in French. She liked novels, plays, and verse but was particularly interested in the writings of the major figures of the French Enlighten-

ment (a period of cultural and idealistic transformation in France), such as Diderot (1713–1784), Voltaire (1694–1778), and Montesquieu (1689–1755).

### ***Rise to power***

Catherine was ambitious as well as intelligent and looked forward to the time she would rule Russia. Unlike her husband, the German-born Catherine took care to demonstrate her dedication to Russia and the Russian Orthodox (an independent branch of the Christian faith) faith. This loyalty, she thought, would earn her a rightful place on the throne and win support of the Russian people.

When Empress Elizabeth died on December 25, 1761, Peter was proclaimed Emperor Peter III, and Catherine became empress. Only a few months after coming to the throne, Peter had created many enemies within the government, the military, and the church. Soon there was a plot to overthrow him, place his seven-year-old son Paul on the throne, and name Catherine as regent (temporary ruler) until the boy was old enough to rule on his own. But those involved in the plot had underestimated Catherine's ambition. They thought that by getting rid of Peter, Catherine would become more of a background figure. She aimed for a more powerful role for herself, however. On June 28, 1762, with the aid of her lover Gregory Orlov, she rallied the troops of St. Petersburg to her support and declared herself Catherine II, the sole ruler of Russia. She had Peter arrested and required him to abdicate, or step down from power. Shortly after his arrest he was killed in a brawl with his captors.

***Early reign (1762–1764)***

Catherine had ambitious plans regarding both domestic and foreign affairs. But during the first years of her reign her attention was directed toward securing her position. She knew that a number of influential persons considered her a usurper, or someone who seized another's power illegally. They viewed her son, Paul, as the rightful ruler. Her reaction to this situation was to take every opportunity to win favor among the nobility and the military. At the same time she struck sharply at those who sought to replace her with Paul.

As for general policy, Catherine understood that Russia needed an extended period of peace in order for her to concentrate on domestic (homeland) affairs. This peace could only be gained through cautious foreign policy. The able Count Nikita Panin (1718–1783), whom she placed in charge of foreign affairs, was well chosen to carry out such a policy.

***Attempts at reform (1764–1768)***

By 1764 Catherine felt secure enough to begin work on reform, or improving social conditions. Catherine's rule was greatly influenced by the ideas of the Enlightenment, and it was in the spirit of the Enlightenment that Catherine undertook her first major reform. Russia's legal system was based on an old and inefficient Code of Laws, dating from 1649. Catherine's proposal, "The Instruction," was widely distributed in Europe and caused a sensation because it called for a legal system far in advance of the times. It proposed a system providing equal protection under law for all persons. It also emphasized prevention of criminal acts rather than harsh punishment for them.

In June 1767 the Empress created the Legislative Commission to revise the old laws in accordance with the "Instruction." Catherine had great hopes about what the commission might accomplish, but it made little progress, and Catherine suspended the meetings at the end of 1768.

***War and revolt (1768–1774)***

Foreign affairs began to demand Catherine's attention. She had sent troops to help her former lover, Polish king Stanislaw (1677–1766), suppress a revolt that aimed at reducing Russia's influence in Poland. Soon Turkey and Austria joined in by supporting the revolution in Poland. Two years later, after lengthy negotiations, Catherine concluded peace talks with Turkey. From this Russia received its first foothold on the Black Sea coast. Russian merchant ships were allowed the right of sailing on the Black Sea and through the Dardanelles, a key waterway in Europe.

Even before the peace talks ended, Catherine had to concern herself with a revolt led by the Cossack Yemelyan Pugachev (1726–1775). The rebel leader claimed that reports of Peter III's death were false and that he was Peter III. Soon tens of thousands were following him, and the uprising was within threatening range of Moscow. Pugachev's defeat required several major expeditions by the imperial forces. A feeling of security returned to the government only after his capture late in 1774.

***Domestic affairs (1775–1787)***

Much of Catherine's fame rests on what she accomplished during the dozen years following the Pugachev uprising. Here she

directed her time and talent to domestic affairs, particularly those concerned with the way the government functioned. Catherine was also concerned with expanding the country's educational system. In 1786 she adopted a plan that would create a large-scale educational system. Unfortunately, she was unable to carry out the entire plan, but she did add to the number of the country's elementary and secondary schools. Some of the remaining parts of her plan were carried out after her death.

The arts and sciences also received much attention during Catherine's reign. Not only because she believed them to be important in themselves, but also because she saw them as a means by which Russia could earn a reputation as a center of civilization. Under her direction St. Petersburg was turned into one of the world's most dazzling capitals. Theater, music, and painting flourished with her encouragement.

As she grew older, Catherine became greatly troubled because her heir, Paul, was becoming mentally unstable and she doubted his ability to rule. She considered naming Paul's oldest son, Alexander, as her successor. Before she was able to alter her original arrangement, however, she died of a stroke on November 6, 1796. While her legacy is open to debate, there is no doubt that Catherine was a key figure in developing Russia into a modern civilization.

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## HENRY CAVENDISH

**Born: October 10, 1731**

**Nice, France**

**Died: February 24, 1810**

**London, England**

*English physicist and chemist*

The English physicist and chemist Henry Cavendish determined the value of the universal constant of gravitation, made noteworthy electrical studies, and is credited with the discovery of hydrogen and the composition of water.

#### **Early years**

Henry Cavendish was born in Nice, France, on October 10, 1731, the oldest son of Lord Charles Cavendish and Lady Anne Grey, who died a few years after Henry was born. As a youth he attended Dr. Newcomb's Academy in Hackney, England. He entered Peterhouse, Cambridge, in 1749, but left after three years without taking a degree.

Cavendish returned to London, England to live with his father. There, Cavendish built himself a laboratory and workshop. When his father died in 1783, Cavendish moved the laboratory to Clapham Common, where he also lived. He never married and was so reserved that there is little record of his having any social life except occasional meetings with scientific friends.

### *Contributions to chemistry*

During his lifetime Cavendish made notable discoveries in chemistry, mainly between 1766 and 1788, and in electricity, between 1771 and 1788. In 1798 he published a single notable paper on the density of the earth. At the time Cavendish began his chemical work, chemists were just beginning to recognize that the “airs” that were evolved in many chemical reactions were clear parts and not just modifications of ordinary air. Cavendish reported his own work in “Three Papers Containing Experiments on Factitious Air” in 1766. These papers added greatly to knowledge of the formation of “inflammable air” (hydrogen) by the action of dilute acids (acids that have been weakened) on metals.

Cavendish’s other great achievement in chemistry is his measuring of the density of hydrogen. Although his figure is only half what it should be, it is astonishing that he even found the right order. Not that his equipment was crude; where the techniques of his day allowed, his equipment was capable of precise results. Cavendish also investigated the products of fermentation, a chemical reaction that splits complex organic compounds into simple substances. He showed that the gas from the fermentation of sugar is nearly the same as the “fixed air” characterized by the compound of chalk and magnesia (both are, in modern language, carbon dioxide).

Another example of Cavendish’s ability was “Experiments on Rathbone-Place Water” (1767), in which he set the highest possible standard of accuracy. “Experiments” is regarded as a classic of analytical chemistry (the branch of chemistry that deals with separating substances into the different chemi-



*Henry Cavendish.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

cals they are made from). In it Cavendish also examined the phenomenon (a fact that can be observed) of the retention of “calcareous earth” (chalk, calcium carbonate) in solution (a mixture dissolved in water). In doing so, he discovered the reversible reaction between calcium carbonate and carbon dioxide to form calcium bicarbonate, the cause of temporary hardness of water. He also found out how to soften such water by adding lime (calcium hydroxide).

One of Cavendish’s researches on the current problem of combustion (the process of burning) made an outstanding contribution to general theory. In 1784 Cavendish deter-

mined the composition (make up) of water, showing that it was a combination of oxygen and hydrogen. Joseph Priestley (1733–1804) had reported an experiment in which the explosion of the two gases had left moisture on the sides of a previously dry container. Cavendish studied this, prepared water in measurable amount, and got an approximate figure for its volume composition.

### ***Electrical research***

Cavendish published only a fraction of the experimental evidence he had available to support his theories, but his peers were convinced of the correctness of his conclusions. He was not the first to discuss an inverse-square law of electrostatic attraction (the attraction between opposite—positive and negative—electrical charges). Cavendish's idea, however, based in part on mathematical reasoning, was the most effective. He founded the study of the properties of dielectrics (non-conducting electricity) and also distinguished clearly between the amount of electricity and what is now called potential.

Cavendish had the ability to make a seemingly limited study give far-reaching results. An example is his study of the origin of the ability of some fish to give an electric shock. He made up imitation fish of leather and wood soaked in salt water, with pewter (tin) attachments representing the organs of the fish that produced the effect. By using Leyden jars (glass jars insulated with tinfoil) to charge the imitation organs, he was able to show that the results were entirely consistent with the fish's ability to produce electricity. This investigation was among the earliest in which the conductivity of aqueous (in water) solutions was studied.

Cavendish began to study heat with his father, then returned to the subject in 1773–1776 with a study of the Royal Society's meteorological instruments. (The Royal Society is the world's oldest and most distinguished scientific organization.) During these studies he worked out the most important corrections to be employed in accurate thermometry (the measuring of temperature). In 1783 he published a study of the means of determining the freezing point of mercury. In it he added a good deal to the general theory of fusion (melting together by heat) and freezing and the latent heat changes that accompany them (the amount of heat absorbed by the fused material).

Cavendish's most celebrated investigation was that on the density of the earth. He took part in a program to measure the length of a seconds pendulum close to a large mountain (Schiehallion). Variations from the period on the plain would show the attraction put out by the mountain, from which the density of its substance could be figured out. Cavendish also approached the subject in a more fundamental way by determining the force of attraction of a very large, heavy lead ball for a very small, light ball. The ratio between this force and the weight of the light ball would result in the density of the earth. His results went unquestioned for nearly a century.

### ***Unpublished works***

Had Cavendish published all of his work, his already great influence would undoubtedly have been greater. In fact, he left in manuscript form a vast amount of work that often anticipated the work of those who followed him. It came to light only bit

by bit until the thorough study undertaken by James Maxwell (1831–1879) and by Edward Thorpe (1845–1925). In these notes is to be found such material as the detail of his experiments to examine the conductivity of metals, as well as many chemical questions such as a theory of chemical equivalents. He even had a theory of partial pressures before John Dalton (1766–1844).

However, the history of science is full of instances of unpublished works that might have influenced others but in fact did not. Whatever he did not reveal, Cavendish gave other scientists enough to help them on the road to modern ideas. Nothing he did has been rejected, and for this reason he is still, in a unique way, part of modern life.

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## ANDERS CELSIUS

**Born:** November 27, 1701

Uppsala, Sweden

**Died:** April 25, 1744

Uppsala, Sweden

*Swedish astronomer*

Anders Celsius was an astronomer who invented the Celsius temperature scale, the most widely used in the world today. Celsius was primarily an astronomer and did not even start working on his temperature scale until shortly before his death.

### Early life and career

Anders Celsius was born in Uppsala, Sweden, on November 27, 1701. The son of an astronomy professor and the grandson of a mathematician and an astronomer, Celsius chose a life in the world of academics. He studied at the University of Uppsala, where his father taught, and in 1730 he, too, was awarded a professorship there. His earliest research concerned the aurora borealis (also known as the northern lights, which are an unusually spectacular illumination of the night sky), and he was the first to suggest a connection between these lights and changes in the Earth's magnetic field.

Celsius traveled for several years, including an expedition into Lapland with French astronomer Pierre-Louis Maupertuis (1698–1759) to measure a degree of longitude (an angular distance of the earth). Upon his return he was appointed steward (manager) to Uppsala's new observatory, a building designated for studying the universe. He began a series of observations using colored glass plates to record the magnitude (size) of certain stars. This was the first attempt to measure the intensity of starlight with a tool other than the human eye.

### The Celsius scale

The work for which Celsius is best known is his creation of a hundred-point scale for temperature; although he was not



Anders Celsius.

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the first to have done so, as several hundred-point scales existed at that time. What set Celsius's scale apart from all of the others was his decision to assign the freezing and boiling points of water as the constant temperatures at either end of the scale.

When Celsius introduced his scale in 1747, it was the reverse of today's scale, with the boiling point of water being zero degrees and the freezing point being one hundred degrees. A year later the two constants were switched, creating the temperature scale used today. Celsius originally called his scale centigrade (from the Latin for "hundred steps"). For years it was simply referred to as the

Swedish thermometer. In 1948 most of the world adopted the hundred-point scale, calling it the Celsius scale.

On April 25, 1744, at the age of forty-two, Anders Celsius died of tuberculosis, a terrible disease that attacks the lungs, bones, and other body parts. He left behind many dissertations (long writings) on astronomy, as well as a well-received book entitled, "Arithmetics for the Swedish Youth," published in 1741. But for all of his accomplishments in his life's work of astronomy, the name Celsius is forever tied to an instrument used every day throughout most of the world.

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## MIGUEL DE CERVANTES

**Born:** c. 1547

**Alcalá de Henares, Spain**

**Died:** April 23, 1616

**Madrid, Spain**

*Spanish author and novelist*

Spanish author Miguel de Cervantes is one of the greatest novelists of the Spanish language. His masterpiece, *Don Quixote*, is one of the most important and influential books in the history of the novel.

### Early years

Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra was born in Alcalá de Henares in the old kingdom of Toledo, Spain. His birth date is unknown but a record states that he was christened on October 9, 1547. It is likely that because of the Christian name he was given, he was born on September 29, Michaelmas, the feast of St. Michael the Archangel. He was the second son and the fourth of seven children of the pharmacist-surgeon Rodrigo de Cervantes and his wife, Leonor de Cortinas.

Nothing is known of Miguel Cervantes' life until 1569. In that year Juan López de Hoyos, a humanist (having to do with human concerns and values) teacher who was devoted to literary culture and whose ideas emphasized nonreligious concerns, brought out a volume in memory of the death of Queen Isabel de Valois in 1568. Cervantes contributed three poems to this work, and López de Hoyos wrote of him as "our dear and beloved pupil." Since López de Hoyos was an admirer of the Dutch humanist Erasmus (c. 1466–1536), Cervantes' attitudes about religion and his admiration toward Erasmus is reflected in his works. Other than the probable likelihood that he studied with the Jesuits in Seville, Spain, that is all that is known about his education.

### Military career

In 1570 Cervantes joined the Spanish forces at Naples, Italy. At this time the Ottoman (Turkish) Empire and the Mediterranean countries (Christians) were at war over control of land and power. As a soldier he witnessed the naval victory at the Gulf of Lepanto (now Gulf of Corinth), Greece, on October 7, 1571. Aboard the *Marquesa*, in the thick of the battle, he was wounded twice in



*Miguel de Cervantes.*

the chest and once in the left hand. The last wound maimed his hand for life. Cervantes often mentioned this victory in his works.

The fleet returned to Messina, and there Cervantes recovered. He saw battle action from 1572 through 1574. While on garrison duty in Palermo, Italy, he felt he was ready for a promotion to captain. He got letters of recommendation and obtained leave to sail back to Spain. With his brother Rodrigo he sailed from Naples on the *Sol* in September 1575.

### Five years of captivity

On September 26 the *Sol* was captured with its crew and passengers. Cervantes lived



in slavery for five years. In captivity he demonstrated an unbreakable will and honorable courage. He led several escape attempts but failed. Twice his family gave priests ransom money, but the amounts were not enough. The first ransom money was used to rescue his brother.

Christian merchants supplied the difference for the second attempt. On September 19, 1580, Cervantes was released. On October 10, before leaving Algiers, Cervantes wrote his *Información*, which described his conduct while in captivity. Two weeks later he sailed for Madrid, Spain, and on December 18, 1580, he signed a statement about his release. He had proved himself as a true Christian soldier, equally heroic in battle and in captivity.

### **Early works**

While in Tomar, Portugal, in 1581, Cervantes was given money to accomplish a royal mission to Oran. This he did, but the royal service was not very rewarding. In a signed letter, addressed to the royal secretary and dated February, 17, 1582, Cervantes tells of his misfortunes in trying to obtain a post in the Peninsula. He also states that he is ready to apply for some post in the Indies, and reports some progress in the writing of the *Galatea*. This novel was to be his first published book, but it did not appear until 1585.

About this same time, Cervantes turned to writing for the theater, an activity that guaranteed a certain income if the plays were successful. In the *Adjunta to his Viaje del Parnaso* (1614) and in the prologue to his *Ocho comedias y ocho entremeses* (1615), he tells of his dramatic successes and his eventual downfall. In a manuscript discovered in 1784

it was learned that of these early plays only two have survived: *Los tratos de Argel* and *La Numancia*.

On December 12, 1584, Cervantes married Doña Catalina de Palacios Salazar y Vozmediano, from Esquivias, in the old kingdom of Toledo, Spain. About a year or two before his wedding, Cervantes had an affair with Ana Franca de Rojas, with whom he had a daughter, Isabel de Saavedra, who was to become an important figure in his later years.

### **Royal service continues**

In 1587 Cervantes was in Seville, Spain. The war between Spain and England was gearing up. The preparation of the Spanish Armada for its disastrous expedition against England was happening on a grand scale. But his new post as commander of the navy brought him only grief, shame, and discomfort. The Cathedral church of Seville excommunicated (denied the rights of church practices and membership) him for taking their grain in Ecija. He traveled considerably, but his finances went from bad to worse. On May 21, 1590, he wrote to the king requesting one of four vacant posts in the Indies. His request was denied. As he had before, he turned to the theater for financial help. Cervantes agreed to write six plays, but payment would be withheld if the producer did not find each of the plays to be "one of the best ever produced in Spain." Nothing is known of the outcome of this contract. For the next seven years Cervantes was in and out of jail for bad financial deals.

### **Don Quixote**

Little documentation for the years from 1600 to 1603 exists. It is very probable that

Cervantes was jailed again for financial reasons. Most of his time must have been taken up by the writing of *Don Quixote*. In January 1605 *Don Quixote* was published in Madrid. It was an immediate success. In the words of the German philosopher F. W. J. von Schelling, *Don Quixote* is “the most universal, the most profound and the most picturesque portrait of life itself.”

Again, from 1605 to 1608, there is little known information about Cervantes. When he reappeared in Madrid, his illegitimate (born out of wedlock) daughter, Isabel de Saavedra, involved him in a series of lawsuits having to do with her financial matters. Once more Cervantes sought escape from Spain, and in 1610 he tried to go to Naples as an attendant to the newly appointed governor, the Count of Lemos. He was turned down, but nevertheless, he dedicated five books, including the second *Quixote*, to the Count of Lemos.

### Later works

When Cervantes was sixty-five years old he entered a period of extraordinary literary creativity. His *Novelas ejemplares* were published in Madrid in 1613. They are twelve little masterpieces, with which Cervantes created the art of short story writing in Spain.

In 1614 his poem *Viaje del Parnaso* was published. But that same year a counterfeit (fake; not genuine) copy of *Don Quixote*, signed with a false name, was published. The identity of this author remains the greatest mystery of Spanish literature. His writing was not affected by the publication of the counterfeit, and in 1615 he published *Ocho comedias y ocho entremeses*, concrete proof of his devotion to the theater. Later in 1615 Cervantes published his own second part of *Don*

*Quixote*. The only fitting praise of the authentic second part of *Don Quixote* is to say that it is even better than the first part.

Cervantes then put all of his energy into finishing *Los trabajos de Persiles y Sigismunda*, a novel of adventures. He had probably begun it at the turn of the century. He signed the dedication to the Count of Lemos (dated April 19, 1616) on his deathbed. He died four days later in Madrid. His widow published his last work in 1617. Cervantes' unmarked grave is in the convent of the Calle de Lope de Vega in Madrid, Spain.

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## PAUL CÉZANNE

**Born:** January 19, 1839

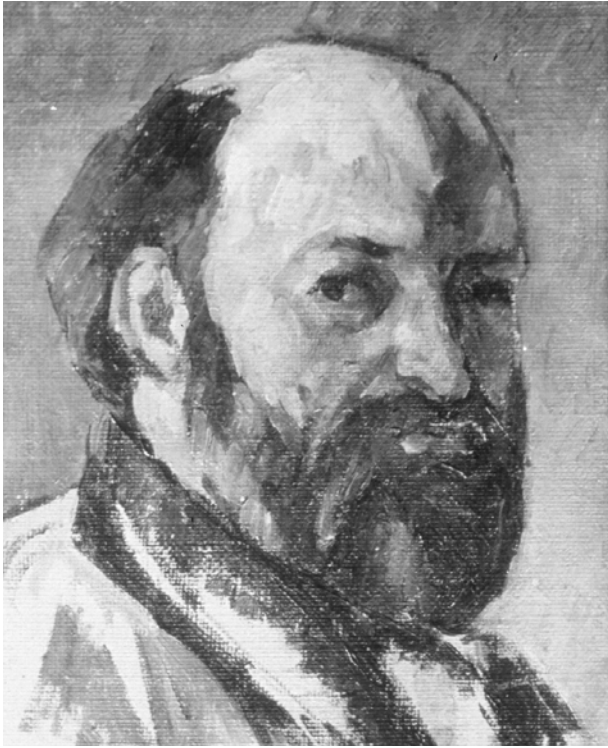
**Aix-en-Provence, France**

**Died:** October 22, 1906

**Aix-en-Provence, France**

*French painter*

The French painter Paul Cézanne was one of the most important figures in the development of modern painting, in particular abstract art and cubism, a



Paul Cézanne.

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style of painting in which geometric shapes are used.

### ***Struggling to become an artist***

Paul Cézanne was born in Aix-en-Provence, France, on January 19, 1839. His father, Philippe Auguste, was the cofounder of a successful banking firm, which afforded Cézanne financial security that was unavailable to most of his fellow artists. In 1852 Cézanne entered the Collège Bourbon, where he met and became friends with Émile Zola (1840–1902). This friendship was important for both men: with youthful spirit they dreamed of successful careers in the Paris art

world, Cézanne as a painter and Zola as a writer. Consequently, Cézanne began to study painting and drawing at the École des Beaux-Arts (School of Design) in Aix in 1856. His father was against the pursuit of an artistic career, and in 1858 he persuaded Cézanne to enter law school at the University of Aix. Although Cézanne continued his law studies for several years, at the same time he was enrolled in the École des Beaux-Arts in Aix, where he remained until 1861.

In 1861 Cézanne finally convinced his father to allow him to go to Paris, France. He planned to join Zola there and to enroll in the École des Beaux-Arts in Paris, but his application was rejected. Although he had gained inspiration from visits to the famous art museum, the Louvre, particularly from studying the painters Diego Velázquez (1599–1660) and Caravaggio (1573–1610), Cézanne experienced self-doubt and returned to Aix within the year. He entered his father's banking house but was bored with the work. At the same time he continued to study at the École des Beaux-Arts in Aix.

The remainder of the decade was a period of uncertainty for Cézanne. He returned to Paris in 1862 and stayed for a year and a half. During this period he met Claude Monet (1840–1926) and Camille Pissarro (1830–1903), and he became familiar with the revolutionary work of Gustave Courbet (1819–1877) and Édouard Manet (1832–1883). But he was never entirely comfortable with Parisian life and occasionally returned to Aix, where he could work and be alone.

### ***Works of the 1860s***

Cézanne's paintings from the 1860s are odd and bear little resemblance to the artist's

mature and more important style. The subject matter is dark and depressing and includes fantasies, dreams, religious images, and a general theme concerned with death.

A fascinating aspect of Cézanne's style in the 1860s is its sense of energy. Each piece seems the work of an artist who could be either madman or genius. That Cézanne would evolve into the latter, however, can in no way be known from these earlier examples. Although Cézanne received encouragement from Pissarro and other artists during the 1860s and enjoyed the occasional critical backing of his friend Zola, his pictures were consistently rejected by the annual salons (art exhibitions in France) and earned him harsh criticism.

### ***Cézanne and impressionism***

In 1872 Cézanne moved to Pontoise, France, where he spent two years working very closely with Pissarro. During this period Cézanne became convinced that one must paint directly from nature. The result was that romantic and religious subjects began to disappear from his canvases. In addition, the dark range of his palette (range of colors) began to give way to fresher, more vibrant colors.

Cézanne, as a direct result of his stay in Pontoise, decided to participate in the first exhibition of the Société Anonyme des Artistes Peintres, Sculpteurs et Graveurs in 1874. Radical artists who had been constantly rejected by the official salons organized this historic exhibition. It inspired the term "impressionism," a revolutionary art form where the "impression" of a scene or object is generated and light is simulated by primary colors.

After 1877 Cézanne gradually withdrew from the impressionists and worked in increasing isolation at his home in southern France. This withdrawal was linked with two factors. First, the more personal direction his work began to take, a direction not taken by the other impressionists. Second, the disappointing responses that his art continued to generate among the public at large. In fact, Cézanne did not show his art publicly for almost twenty years after the third impressionist show.

Cézanne's paintings from the 1870s clearly show the influence of impressionism. In the *House of the Hanged Man* (1873–1874) and the *Portrait of Victor Choquet* (1875–1877) he painted directly from the subject and used the short, loaded brushstrokes that are characteristic of the style as it was forged by Monet, Pissarro, and Pierre-Auguste Renoir (1841–1919).

### ***Mature work***

During the 1880s Cézanne saw less and less of his friends, and several personal events affected him deeply. In 1886 he married Hortense Fiquet, a model with whom he had been living for seventeen years. Also, his father died that same year. Probably the most significant event of this year, however, was the publication of the novel *L'Oeuvre* by his friend Zola. The hero of the story is a painter (generally acknowledged to be a combination of Cézanne and Manet) whom Zola presented as an artistic failure. Cézanne took this as an insult to both him and his career and, bitterly hurt, he never spoke to Zola again.

Cézanne's isolation in Aix began to lessen during the 1890s. In 1895, owing

largely to the urging of Pissarro, Monet, and Renoir, the dealer Ambroise Vollard (1865–1939) showed a large number of Cézanne's paintings, and public interest in his work slowly began to develop. In 1899, 1901, and 1902 Cézanne sent pictures to the annual Salon des Indépendants in Paris. In 1904 he was given an entire room at the Salon d'Automne. While painting outdoors in the fall of 1906 Cézanne was overtaken by a storm and became ill. He died in Aix on October 22, 1906. At the Salon d'Automne of 1907 his achievement was honored with a large retrospective exhibition (an exhibit that shows an artist's life work).

Cézanne's paintings from the last twenty-five years of his life led to the development of modern art. Working slowly and patiently, he developed a style that has affected almost every radical phase of twentieth-century art. This new form is apparent in many works, including the *Bay of Marseilles from L'Estaque* (1883–1885), *Mont Sainte-Victoire* (1885–1887), the *Cardplayers* (1890–1892), the *White Sugar Bowl* (1890–1894), and the *Great Bathers* (1895–1905).

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## MARC CHAGALL

**Born:** July 7, 1887

**Vitebsk, Russia**

**Died:** March 28, 1985

**Maritimes, France**

*Russian painter and artist*

Russian painter Marc Chagall was one of the great masters of the School of Paris. He was also praised as an influence on surrealism, a twentieth-century artistic movement that expressed the subconscious in wild imagery.

#### **An inspired childhood**

Marc Chagall was born Moishe Shagal on July 7, 1887, in Vitebsk, Russia, to a poor Jewish family that included ten children. His father, Zakhar Chagall, worked in a fish factory and his mother, Ida Chagall, worked in the family home and ran a grocery store. The years of his childhood, the family circle, and his native village became the main themes of his art. These first impressions lingered in his mind like original images and were transformed into paintings with such titles as the *Candlestick with the Burning Lights*, the *Cow and Fish Playing the Violin*, the *Man Meditating on the Scriptures*, the *Fiddler on the Roof*, and *I and My Village*. According to French poet and critic André Breton (1896–1966), with Chagall “the metaphor [comparison of images] made its triumphant return into modern painting.” And it has been said that Pablo Picasso (1881–1973) was a triumph of the mind, but Chagall was the glory of the heart.

Chagall received early schooling from a teacher friend who lived nearby. He then attended the town school, but he only did well in geometry. He became an apprentice (a person who works for another in order to learn a profession) to a photographer but did not like the work. He then decided that he wanted to become an artist and talked his parents into paying for art lessons. He began his artistic instruction under the direction of a painter in Vitebsk. In 1907 he moved to St. Petersburg, Russia, where he attended the school of the Imperial Society for the Protection of the Arts and studied briefly with famed Russian painter Leon Bakst (1866–1924). These were difficult years for Chagall. He was extremely poor and was unable to support himself with his artwork. He took a job as a servant and also learned how to paint signs. In Bakst's studio he had his first contact with the modern movement that was sweeping Paris, and it freed his inner resources. His pictures of this early period are pleasant images of his childhood.

With some help from a patron (someone who supported him financially), Chagall went to Paris in 1910. The poets Blaise Cendrars (1887–1961), Max Jacob (1876–1944), and Guillaume Apollinaire (1880–1918), and the painters Roger de La Fresnaye (1885–1925), Robert Delaunay (1885–1941), and Amedeo Modigliani (1884–1920) became his friends. Chagall participated in the art showings at the Salon des Indépendants and the Salon d'Automne in 1912, but it was his first one-man show in Herwarth Walden's Der Sturm Gallery in Berlin, Germany, which established him internationally as a leading artist.



*Marc Chagall.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

### ***Travels inspired new works***

Chagall lived in Russia for the duration of World War I (1914–18). During the Russian Revolution (the uprising to overthrow the government of the czar [Russian king] in 1917) he was made a commissar (an official) for art, but he resigned in 1919 after a clash with the suprematist painters (Russian artists that used nonobjective art and basic geometric shapes). In 1922 Chagall left Russia for good, going to Berlin, Germany and then back to Paris. The art dealer Ambroise Vollard (1865–1939) commissioned (hired) him to illustrate Nikolay Gogol's (1809–1852) "Dead Souls" (ninety-six etchings) in 1923

and “La Fontaine’s Fables” (one hundred etchings) in 1927.

A journey to Palestine and Syria in 1931 gave Chagall firsthand knowledge of the land, which he represented in his illustrations for the Bible (1931–1939 and 1952–1956). He is considered the greatest interpreter of the Bible since Rembrandt (1606–1669). He used biblical themes in paintings, graphic works, and stained glass (two windows for the Cathedral in Metz, France, 1960 and 1962; twelve windows for the medical center in Jerusalem, 1961). Chagall started a new series of large paintings, the “Biblical Message,” in 1963.

Chagall traveled throughout France and elsewhere from 1932 to 1941, when he settled in the United States, where he remained until 1947. He designed the sets and costumes for the ballets *Aleko* (1942) and *The Firebird* (1945). Bella, his beloved wife, inspiration, and model, whom he had married in 1915, died in 1944.

In 1948, the year after Chagall returned to France, he started *Arabian Nights*, a series of lithographs (prints created by a printing process using stone or metal plates that have been treated so that the image to be printed picks up the ink and the blank area does not). He began working in ceramics in 1950 and made his first sculptures the following year. In 1952 he married Valentina “Vava” Brodsky. His famous “Paris” series, a sequence of fantastic scenes set against the background of views of the city, was created between 1953 and 1956.

Chagall continued to create great artworks throughout the later years of his life. In the 1960s and 1970s, his stained glass art

appeared in such buildings as the United Nations (UN) in New York City. In 1973 a museum of his works was opened in Nice, France. In 1977, the Louvre, a world-famous art museum in Paris, exhibited sixty-two of his paintings, an extremely rare event for a living artist. Chagall died at the age of ninety-seven in 1985.

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## WILT CHAMBERLAIN

**Born:** August 21, 1936

**Philadelphia, Pennsylvania**

**Died:** October 12, 1999

**Los Angeles, California**

*African American basketball player*



ilt Chamberlain is considered one of the world’s all-time greatest professional basketball players.

### **Born to play basketball**

Wilt Chamberlain was born August 21, 1936, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, one of nine children raised by William and Olivia Chamberlain. His father worked in a local

publishing company, while his mother performed outside housework. The Chamberlains lived in a racially-mixed middle-class neighborhood, and Wilt enjoyed a relatively pleasant childhood.

At Shoemaker Junior High School Wilt began to play on the basketball team. He also played on the playgrounds against older players who taught him a lot about the game. He later said, "I still think you could pick up a team from the street corners of Philly that would give most colleges a real hard time." Wilt attended Overbrook High School in Philadelphia beginning in 1952. At that time he was already 6'11" tall, and had developed what he termed a "deep love for basketball."

### ***Recruited by more than two hundred universities***

Chamberlain's high school basketball career was astounding. In three seasons he scored more than 2,200 points. As a result more than two hundred universities recruited Chamberlain, but he wanted to get away from big cities and preferred to play in the Midwest. He chose the University of Kansas because of the recruiting by Hall of Fame coach Phog Allen.

At Kansas Chamberlain continued his brilliant play on the basketball court, scoring fifty-two points in his first varsity game. During his first varsity season, he led the Jayhawks to the finals of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) tournament, but they lost to North Carolina in double overtime. During his college career he averaged over thirty points per game and was twice selected to All-American teams. Following his junior year, he decided to quit college and become a professional.



*Wilt Chamberlain.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

Because Chamberlain did not play his final season at Kansas, he was not eligible to join a National Basketball Association (NBA) team for one more year. He instead joined the Harlem Globetrotters and spent the year traveling the world and entertaining adults and youngsters alike. He later claimed that his year with the Globetrotters was his most enjoyable season of basketball.

### ***Scoring machine***

In 1959 Chamberlain joined the NBA's Philadelphia Warriors and made an immediate impact on the league. He could score almost at will. Opposing teams gave up trying



to stop him and instead tried only to contain him. His scoring average during the 1959-60 season was 37.9 points per game—more than eight points per game higher than anyone else had ever scored in the history of the league. He was named both Rookie of the Year and Most Valuable Player, the first person to receive both awards in the same season.

For the next six seasons Chamberlain led the league in scoring. In the 1961-62 season he averaged 50.4 points and scored 100 points in one game. In 1962-63 he averaged 44.8 points per game. Chamberlain was simply one of the greatest scoring machines in the history of basketball.

Despite Chamberlain's scoring achievements, he and his teammates were not winning NBA championships. The Boston Celtics and their center Bill Russell (1934–) dominated the game in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Russell had revolutionized basketball with his defense as much as Chamberlain had with his offense, and Russell always had a great group of supporting players. Chamberlain always took a great deal of abuse from the media and fans because of his lack of success against Russell.

### ***Wins championship with the 76ers***

Finally, in 1967, Chamberlain reversed his fortunes. He had been traded to the new Philadelphia team, the 76ers, and in 1967 they finished the regular season with the best record in the history of the league. In the championship series, the 76ers polished off the San Francisco Warriors to win the first world title for Chamberlain.

Several years later Chamberlain was traded again, this time to the Los Angeles

Lakers. The Lakers had featured numerous great players through the years, including Elgin Baylor (1934–) and Jerry West (1938–), but had not won a championship since moving to Los Angeles from Minneapolis, Minnesota, in 1960. In 1972, however, the Lakers seemed poised to finally win a championship. They finished the year with the best regular season record in history, breaking the record set by Chamberlain and the 76ers in 1967. In the championship series, the Lakers played the powerful New York Knickerbockers, led by Willis Reed (1942–), Dave DeBusschere (1940–), Bill Bradley (1943–), and Walt Frazier (1945–). In the fourth game of the series Chamberlain suffered a fractured wrist. Although the Lakers led the series three games to one, the series still seemed in doubt because of Chamberlain's injury. Despite understandable pain, Chamberlain played the next game with football linemen's pads on both hands. He scored 24 points, grabbed 29 rebounds, and blocked 10 shots. The Lakers won the game and the series four games to one, bringing the first world championship to Los Angeles.

Following the 1973 season, Chamberlain left the NBA as the all-time leader in points scored (more than 30,000), rebounds (over 22,000), and with four Most Valuable Player awards and more than forty league records. After retiring from basketball, Chamberlain was involved in a wide variety of activities. He sponsored several amateur athletic groups, including volleyball teams and track clubs. He invested wisely through the years and spent his retirement years as a wealthy man. He also kept in outstanding physical condition. When he walked into a room or onto a basketball court, he was a legendary presence.

**Controversial books**

Chamberlain gained further notoriety in 1991 with the release of his second and most talked about autobiography, *A View from Above*. The book contains observations on athletes of the 1990s, gun control, and his fourteen years in the NBA, among other topics. But it was the claim that he had slept with twenty thousand women that landed him in the celebrity spotlight and in the public hot seat. Reflecting upon this claim, Chamberlain regretted the way he discussed sex in the book and became a champion of safe sex. In 1997 Chamberlain published *Who's Running the Asylum?: The Insane World of Sports Today*. His last book provides a critical discussion of the sports industry and the NBA, including his own ranking of basketball's greatest players.

Chamberlain died on October 12, 1999, in his Bel Air, California, home. Chamberlain had been treated for an irregular heartbeat in 1992 and was on medication to treat the condition. Chamberlain is remembered as one of the most dominant players to ever grace a basketball court. His record of 100 points in a game is a record that will be hard to break.

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## SUBRAHMANYAN CHANDRASEKHAR

**Born:** October 19, 1910

**Lahore, India (now part of Pakistan)**

**Died:** August 21, 1995

**Chicago, Illinois**

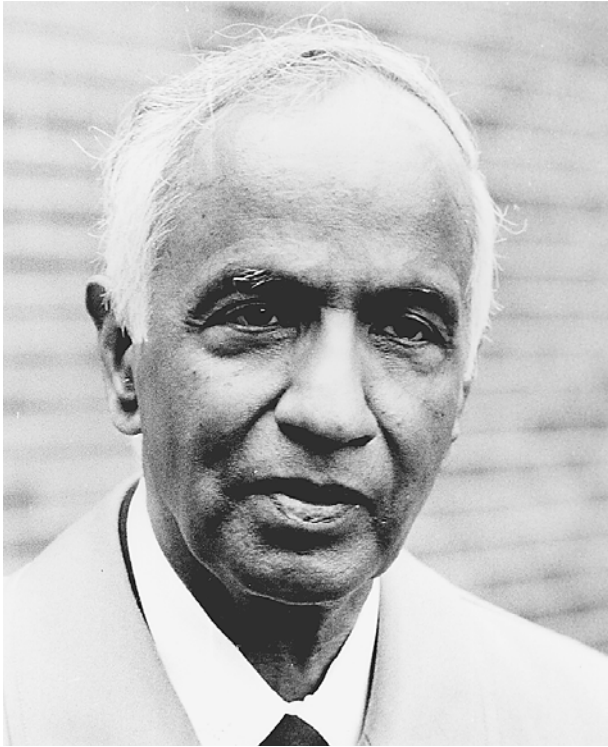
*Indian-born American astrophysicist  
and mathematician*

Subrahmanyan Chandrasekhar worked on the origins and structures of stars, earning an important place in the world of science. The Nobel Prize-winning physicist's most celebrated work concerns the radiation of energy from stars, particularly the dying fragments known as white dwarf stars.

**Early years**

Subrahmanyan Chandrasekhar, better known as Chandra, was born on October 19, 1910, in Lahore, India (now part of Pakistan), the first son of C. Subrahmanyan Ayyar and Sitalakshmi (Divan Bahadur) Balakrishnan. Chandra came from a large family—he had six brothers and three sisters. As the firstborn son, Chandra inherited his paternal grandfather's name, Chandrasekhar. His uncle was the Nobel Prize-winning Indian physicist, Sir C. V. Raman (1888–1970).

Chandra received his early education at home, beginning when he was five. From his mother he learned Tamil (a language spoken in India), from his father, English and arithmetic. He set his sights upon becoming a scientist at an early age, and to this end, undertook some independent study of calculus and physics. Private tutors taught Chandra until 1921, when he enrolled in the Hindu High School in Triplicane, India. With typical drive



*Subrahmanyan Chandrasekhar.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

and motivation, he studied on his own and rose to the head of the class, completing school by the age of fifteen.

After high school Chandra attended Presidency College in Madras, India. For the first two years he studied physics, chemistry, English, and Sanskrit. For his bachelor's honors degree he wished to take pure mathematics but his father insisted that he take physics. Chandra registered as an honors physics student but attended mathematics lectures, where his teachers quickly realized his brilliance. Chandra also took part in sporting activities and joined the debating team. A highlight of his college years was the publication of his paper,

"The Compton Scattering and the New Statistics." These and other early successes while still an eighteen-year-old undergraduate only strengthened Chandra's determination to pursue a career in scientific research, despite his father's wish that he join the Indian civil service.

Upon graduating with a master's degree in 1930, Chandra set off for Trinity College in Cambridge, England. As a research student at Cambridge he turned to astrophysics, inspired by a theory of stellar (stars) evolution that had occurred to him as he made the long boat journey from India to Cambridge. In the summer of 1931 he worked with physicist Max Born (1882–1970) at the Institut für Theoretische Physik at Göttingen in Germany. In 1932 he left for Copenhagen, Denmark, where he was able to devote more of his energies to pure physics. A series of Chandra's lectures on astrophysics given at the University of Liège, in Belgium in February 1933 received a warm reception.

### **White dwarfs**

During a four-week trip to Russia in 1934—where he met physicists Lev Davidovich Landau (1908–1968), B. P. Geraismovic, and Viktor Ambartsumian—he returned to the work that had led him into astrophysics to begin with: white dwarfs. Upon returning to Cambridge, he took up researching white dwarfs again.

As a member of the Royal Astronomical Society since 1932, Chandra was entitled to present papers at its twice monthly meetings. It was at one of these that Chandra, in 1935, announced the results of the work that would later make his name. As stars evolve, he told the assembled audience, they release energy generated by their conversion of hydrogen into helium and even heavier elements. As

they reach the end of their life, stars have less hydrogen left to convert so they release less energy in the form of radiation. They eventually reach a stage when they are no longer able to generate the pressure needed to maintain their size against their own gravitational pull, and they begin to shrink, eventually collapsing into themselves. Their electrons (particle with a negative charge) become so tightly packed that their normal activity is shut down and they become white dwarfs, or tiny objects of enormous density.

### ***The Yerkes Observatory***

In 1937 Chandra returned home to India to marry Lalitha Doraiswamy. The couple settled in the United States. A year later Chandra was charged with developing a graduate program in astronomy and astrophysics and with teaching some of the courses at the University of Chicago's Yerkes Observatory. His reputation as a teacher soon attracted top students to the observatory's graduate school. He also continued researching stellar evolution, stellar structure, and the transfer of energy within stars.

In 1944 Chandra achieved a lifelong goal when he was elected to the Royal Society of London, the world's oldest scientific organization. In 1952 he became the Morton D. Hull Distinguished Service Professor of Astrophysics in the departments of astronomy and physics, as well as at the Institute for Nuclear Physics, at the University of Chicago's Yerkes Observatory. Later the same year he was appointed managing editor of the *Astrophysical Journal*, a position he held until 1971.

Chandra became a United States citizen in 1953. He retired from the University of Chicago in 1980, although he remained on as

a post-retirement researcher. In 1983 he published a classic work on the mathematical theory of black holes. His semi-retirement also left him with more time to pursue his hobbies and interests: literature and music, particularly orchestral, chamber, and South Indian.

Chandra died in Chicago on August 21, 1995, at the age of eighty-two. Throughout his life Chandra strove to acquire knowledge and understanding. According to an autobiographical essay published with his Nobel lecture, he was motivated "principally by a quest after perspectives."

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## CHARLIE CHAPLIN

**Born:** April 16, 1889

**London, England**

**Died:** December 25, 1977

**Vevey, Switzerland**

*English actor, director, and writer*

The film actor, director, and writer Charlie Chaplin was one of the most original creators in the history of movies. His performances as “the tramp”—a sympathetic comic character with ill-fitting clothes and a mustache—won admiration from audiences across the world.

### ***Rough childhood***

Charles Spencer Chaplin was born in a poor district of London, England, on April 16, 1889. His mother, Hannah Hill Chaplin, a talented singer, actress, and piano player, spent most of her life in and out of mental hospitals; his father, Charles Spencer Chaplin Sr. was a fairly successful singer until he began drinking. After his parents separated, Charlie and his half-brother, Sidney, spent most of their childhood in orphanages, where they often went hungry and were beaten if they misbehaved. Barely able to read and write, Chaplin left school to tour with a group of comic entertainers. Later he starred in a comedy act. By the age of nineteen he had become one of the most popular music-hall performers in England.

### ***Arrives in the United States***

In 1910 Chaplin went to the United States to tour in *A Night in an English Music Hall*. He was chosen by filmmaker Mack Sennett (1884–1960) to appear in the silent Keystone comedy series. In these early movies (*Making a Living*, *Tillie’s Punctured Romance*), Chaplin changed his style. He stopped overacting and became more delicate and precise in his movements. He created the role of “the tramp.”

Appearing in over thirty short films, Chaplin realized that the speed and craziness

of Sennett’s productions was holding back his personal talents. He left to work at the Essanay Studios. Some of his films during this period were *His New Job*, *The Tramp*, and *The Champion*, notable for their comic and sympathetic moments. His 1917 films for the Mutual Company, including *One A.M.*, *The Pilgrim*, *The Cure*, *Easy Street*, and *The Immigrant*, displayed sharper humor. In 1918 Chaplin built his own studio and signed a million-dollar contract with National Films, producing silent-screen classics such as *A Dog’s Life*, comparing the life of a dog with that of a tramp; *Shoulder Arms*, which poked fun at World War I (1914–18); and *The Kid*, a touching story of slum life.

### ***Established star***

In 1923 Chaplin, D. W. Griffith (1875–1948), Douglas Fairbanks (1883–1937), and Mary Pickford (1893–1979) formed United Artists (UA) to produce high-quality feature-length movies. *A Woman of Paris* (1923), a drama, was followed by two of Chaplin’s funniest films, *The Gold Rush* (1925) and *The Circus* (1928). Chaplin directed *City Lights* (1931), a beautiful tale about the tramp’s friendship with a drunken millionaire and a blind flower girl. Many critics consider it his finest work. Although movies had made the change over to sound, *City Lights* was silent except for one scene in which the tramp hiccups with a tin whistle in his throat while trying to listen politely to a concert.

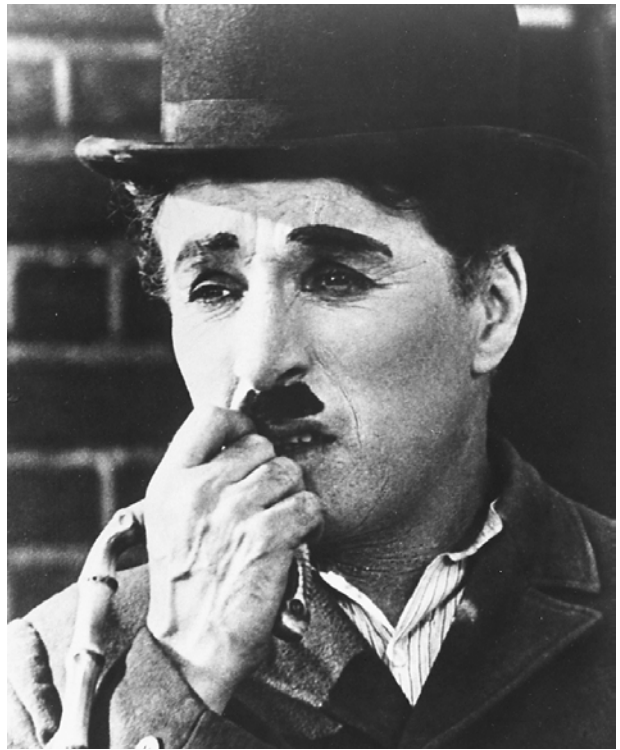
*Modern Times* (1936), a farce (broad comedy with an unbelievable plot) about the cruelty and greed of modern industry, contains some of the funniest gags and comic sequences in film history, the most famous being the tramp’s battle with an eating

machine gone crazy. Chaplin's character of Hynkel in *The Great Dictator* (1940) is a powerful satire (the use of humor to criticize a person or institution) of German military leader Adolf Hitler (1889–1945). It was the last film using the tramp, and ends with Chaplin pleading for love and freedom.

It was with these more involved productions of the 1930s and 1940s that Chaplin achieved true greatness as a film director. *Monsieur Verdoux*, directed by Chaplin in 1947 (and condemned by the American Legion of Decency), is one of the strongest moral statements ever put on the screen. Long before European filmmakers taught audiences to appreciate the role of the writer and director, Chaplin revealed his many talents by handling both roles in his productions.

### ***Political views stir trouble***

The love showered upon Chaplin in the early years of his career was more than equaled by the anger directed toward him during the 1940s and early 1950s. The American public was outraged by the outspoken quality of his political views, the problems in his personal life, and the often bitter elements expressed in his art. A socialist (one who believes all people should have equal ownership in the production of goods and services) and an atheist (one who denies the existence of God), Chaplin expressed a hatred for dictatorship (government in which power is held by one person or a single small group). This made people suspicious of him. This feeling increased when he released *Monsieur Verdoux*, in which he showed that mass murder and the abuse of workers in an attempt to increase business profits were similar. Critics praised the film, but it was more



Charlie Chaplin.

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popular with European audiences than those in America.

During the next five years Chaplin devoted himself to *Limelight* (1952), a gentle and sometimes sad work based in part on his own life. It was much different from *Monsieur Verdoux*. "I was . . . still not convinced," Chaplin wrote, "that I had completely lost the affection of the American people, that they could be so politically conscious or so humorless as to boycott [refuse to pay attention to] anyone that could amuse them." Further hurting Chaplin's image was a much-publicized lawsuit brought against him by a woman who claimed he was the father of her

child. Although Chaplin proved he was not the child's father, reaction to the charges turned many people against him.

While on vacation in Europe in 1952, Chaplin was notified by the U.S. attorney general that his reentry into the United States would be challenged. He was charged with committing immoral acts and being politically suspicious. Chaplin, who had never become a United States citizen, sold all of his American possessions and settled in Geneva, Switzerland, with his fourth wife, Oona O'Neill, daughter of the American playwright Eugene O'Neill (1888–1953), and their children. In 1957 Chaplin visited England to direct *The King in New York*, which was never shown in the United States. *My Autobiography* (the story of his own life) was published in 1964. Most critics considered Chaplin's 1967 film, *A Countess from Hong Kong*, a disaster.

### ***Return to the United States***

By the 1970s times had changed, and Chaplin was again recognized for his rich contribution to film. He returned to the United States in 1972, where he was honored by major tributes in New York City and Hollywood, California, including receiving a special Academy Award. In 1975 he became Sir Charles Chaplin after Queen Elizabeth II (1926–) of England knighted him. Two years later, on December 25, 1977, Chaplin died in his sleep in Switzerland.

All of Chaplin's works display the physical grace, ability to express feeling, and intellectual vision possessed by the finest actors. A film about Chaplin's life, titled *Chaplin*, was released in 1992.

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## CHARLEMAGNE

**Born:** c. 742

**Died:** January 28, 814

**Aachen (now in Germany)**

*Frankish king and ruler*

Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, was king of the Franks between 768 and 814, and emperor of the West between 800 and 814. He founded the Holy Roman Empire, strengthened European economic and political life, and promoted the cultural revival known as the Carolingian Renaissance. Charlemagne's rule greatly influenced Europe's push to create a unique civilization different from that of Rome or other ancient empires.

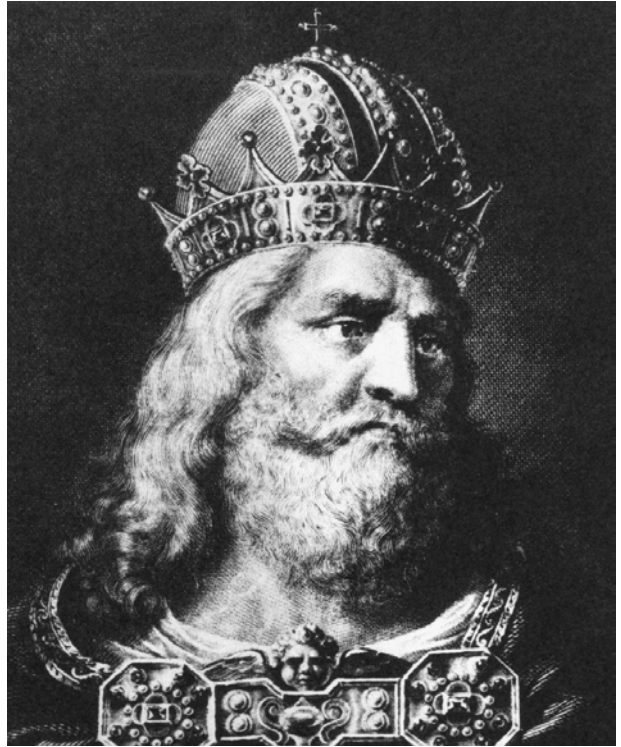
### *Early life*

Charlemagne, the son of Pepin the Short and Bertrada, was born in 742. Although his parents married before his brother Carloman was born, they were not legally married at the time of Charlemagne's birth, and he was thus thought to be illegitimate (born out of wedlock). In 741 Pepin had become mayor of the palace, and in 751 he deposed (removed from office) the last Merovingian king and was declared king of the Franks, a powerful Germanic tribe that lived in the region today known as France. Little is known about Charlemagne's childhood. In 754, however, he participated in the ceremony where Pope Stephen II appointed Pepin king. Charlemagne also joined Pepin on many military campaigns.

When Pepin died in October 768, Charlemagne and Carloman were both proclaimed king and were to rule the kingdom together. In the division of the realm, however, Carloman received a larger and richer portion. Under these circumstances relations between the brothers turned sour. But Carloman died unexpectedly in 771, leaving Charlemagne the sole ruler of the entire kingdom.

### *Territorial expansion*

Charlemagne moved aggressively, especially in Italy, to remove those who threatened his power. He immediately attacked and defeated King Desiderius of the Lombards. Shortly thereafter Charlemagne was crowned king of the Lombards at Pavia. The Frankish conquest of Italy—first of Lombardy in the north and later Benevento in the south—brought new wealth and people into his kingdom.



*Charlemagne.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

During his Italian operations Charlemagne also declared war against the Saxons, a Germanic tribe who threatened the northeastern frontier of Francia. Begun in 772, this cruel and bitter war finally ended in 804. Francia absorbed the land of Saxony and enforced the Christian religion on the Saxon tribes.

On his eastern frontier Charlemagne defeated Tassilo, the duke of Bavaria. To his empire Charlemagne added the Bavarian duchy, or territory controlled by a duke. He divided the western portion of the duchy into counties, each controlled by a count loyal to the king.



Further to the east the major power and ultimate threat to the Frankish realm was the vast Slavic kingdom of the Avars, or Huns, an Asiatic tribe that had settled along the upper Danube River. Between 791 and 795 Charlemagne crushed the power of the Avars and added their kingdom as a state. This victory opened the entire Danubian Plain to German colonization and the eastern expansion of Christianity—the beginning of the *Drang nach Osten*, or push to the East.

### **Holy Roman Empire**

By 800 Charlemagne had succeeded in greatly extending his power while crushing several enemies. He ruled all of the Christianized western provinces, except the British Isles, that had once been part of the Roman Empire. As the sworn protector of the Church, Charlemagne was in fact the political master of Rome itself. The papacy, or office of the pope, also recognized Charlemagne's power. The pope crowned Charlemagne Holy Roman Emperor on Christmas Day, 800.

Charlemagne attempted to create unity and harmony within his vast realm and to support laws and promote learning that would achieve his goals of the empire. Charlemagne, in contrast to his Merovingian predecessors (who constantly traveled throughout their realms) attempted to create a fixed capital to rival that of Byzantium, an ancient culture legendary for its beauty and wealth.

### **A closer look at Charlemagne**

The major record of Charlemagne's personal achievements is the *Vita Caroli Magni*, the first medieval biography. Written by Einhard between 817 and 836, this biography is

largely a firsthand account, as Einhard was a member of the palace school during Charlemagne's reign and was his close associate.

In the *Vita* is the actual physical description of the man who has since become one of the greatest legendary heroes of the Middle Ages (476–1453 C.E.). Toward his friends Charlemagne was lighthearted, and he particularly enjoyed the company of others. Yet toward his enemies he was often a cruel warrior feared for his strength and ability. Although primarily a man of action, he had great admiration for learning and spoke Latin fluently. He studied Greek and the liberal arts and thus combined, to some extent, the personality of a warrior and a scholar.

### **Charlemagne's administration**

What is most striking about Charlemagne's rule was that he was able to maintain, largely through the strength of his own personality, a centralized state wherein royal authority came first. Charlemagne also maintained a small group of the best warriors, the *vassi dominici*, who helped him enforce his authority. During the course of his reign Charlemagne sent a number of written instructions to his officials. These enactments, known as the *Capitularii* had the force of law and were executed directly by the royal agents. They are extremely valuable as sources in understanding the social and legal structure of Carolingian France.

In general, Charlemagne's reign was a period of internal calm and prosperity because of his military and political ability. He succeeded, through diplomatic negotiations, in having his imperial title recognized by the Byzantine emperor. Through his program of cultural revival and changes to the

Church, he succeeded in improving the level of civilization in the West.

### *Carolingian culture*

Charlemagne's support of the arts and letters had several purposes beyond the general improvement of culture and literacy in the empire. One of the major purposes was to provide an educated clergy (a group of religious servants) that could undertake many of the administrative tasks of government. A second purpose was to win the acceptance of orthodox doctrine, or rules of the church, as well as a uniform religious practice throughout the empire. Such uniformity not only strengthened the Church but also centralized the administration of the empire. Still, a third purpose of this cultural revival was to improve the status and authority of Charlemagne himself, who thus appeared as the defender and protector of the Church, of orthodoxy, and of education.

The intellectual traditions and educational institutions supported by Charlemagne greatly influenced the development of Western culture. Charlemagne expanded the number of schools, and the quality of education was greatly improved.

### *His last years*

In 806, at the age of sixty-four, Charlemagne took measures to provide for the succession of his empire. He divided the realm among his three sons—Charles, Pepin, and Louis. But the death of Charles in April 810 was soon followed by that of Pepin. The remaining son, Louis, later called “the Pious,” the least warlike and aggressive of the three, was left as the sole heir to the empire. He was crowned by his father in 813.

The last years of Charlemagne's reign saw difficult times. Civil disorder increased as did disease and famine (drastic food shortages). Additionally, there were troubles on the frontiers. In many respects, the future looked dark. In 811 Charlemagne made his final will, giving a more sizable portion of his treasures to various churches of the realm than to his own heirs. He died on January 28, 814, and was buried at his palace at Aachen.

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## CHARLES, PRINCE OF WALES

**Born:** November 14, 1948

**London, England**

*English prince*

Charles, Prince of Wales, is next in line for the British throne. He was probably the most photographed and written about person in the Western world in the late 1970s, but his ex-wife, Diana, Princess of Wales (1961–1997), surpassed him in popu-



*Charles, Prince of Wales.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

larity. He became a single parent to his and Diana's two sons after her death and an active voice in favor of economic and social issues.

### **Early life**

Prince Charles Philip Arthur George, the eldest of four children of Princess Elizabeth (1926–) and Prince Philip (1921–), was born on November 14, 1948, in Buckingham Palace. After the death in February 1952 of his grandfather, King George VI (1895–1952), and his mother's succession as Queen Elizabeth II, Prince Charles became the Duke of Cornwall, a position that includes the ownership of a large portion of valuable

property, and placed him next in line for the throne of the United Kingdom.

Charles, who was an obedient, shy, and somewhat awkward child, was first taught at home by a governess. In 1956, however, his parents broke from tradition and decided to send him to a local day school, Hill House in Knightsbridge. During his time at Hill House Prince Charles was often pursued by members of the London press. This continued after his enrollment in 1957 at Cheam in Hampshire, England, an upper-class preparatory school his father had attended. In July 1958, during Charles's stay at Cheam, the queen named him Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester. Still, Prince Charles was treated much like the other boys at Cheam, sharing a room with nine others and doing chores. While at Cheam the prince developed his sense of humor and his interest in theatre.

### **More education and military training**

In part to avoid the press, Prince Charles chose to attend Gordonstoun, a school located in a remote area of northern Scotland. It was known for its strict rules, its tough living conditions, and its emphasis on social responsibility and community service. The prince attended Gordonstoun from 1962 to January 1966, and then was sent to Australia to attend Timbertop, a branch of the Geelong Grammar School. The isolated location and physical activity provided the prince with an increased sense of self-reliance. "Australia," he was later to say, "conquered my shyness." Prince Charles returned to Gordonstoun in September 1966 and during his last year rose to become head boy, or guardian, of the school. He enjoyed acting in plays and became interested in classical music.

After much thought, it was decided that Prince Charles would complete his academic career at Trinity College in Cambridge, England, where his grandfather George VI had also attended. The prince entered Trinity in October 1967 and continued his musical and acting pursuits while earning average grades in archaeology and history. In 1969 Prince Charles was sent to University College of Wales at Aberystwyth in order to learn Welsh history, language, and literature in preparation for the official ceremony that would name him Prince of Wales. He returned to Cambridge in the fall of 1969 and received his degree in 1970, the first member of the royal family to do so. Following family tradition, he spent the next seven years in the military. He attended the Royal Air Force College at Cranwell and the Royal Naval College at Dartmouth. During his time in the Royal Navy the prince served tours of sea duty, learned to fly helicopters and to skydive, and was given command of the Her Majesty's Ship (HMS) Barrington.

### *Prince, husband, and father*

In 1977 Prince Charles began his role as Prince of Wales. Up to this time the prince had taken part in some public events. From 1977 on, however, his public activities as Prince of Wales increased in number and importance. He lent support to many charitable causes, especially those having to do with youth and the environment. He represented the royal family at home and served as a goodwill ambassador (representative) abroad. In 1978 he visited South America and in the same year represented the queen at the funerals of respected Commonwealth statesmen Sir Robert Menzies (1894–1978) and Jomo Kenyatta (c. 1893–1978). The prince went to

Yugoslavia in 1979, to the Far East in the same year, to India in 1980, and to Australia in the spring of 1981.

In February 1981 Charles's engagement to the Lady Diana Frances Spencer, daughter of Earl Spencer, was officially announced. The royal wedding, on July 29, 1981, was a magnificent and moving event that was viewed by millions worldwide on television. Marriage and the birth of his two sons, Prince William in June 1982 and Prince Henry in September 1984, did not affect the prince's busy schedule. Princess Diana accompanied him on many trips, and because of her youth, beauty, and style she developed a loyal following of her own that served to support but later overshadow her husband's position.

### *Troubles at Buckingham Palace*

While there had always been rumors that Charles and Diana were having problems with their marriage, the royal couple continued to make public appearances and raise their two sons. The twelve-year age difference between Charles and Diana, the intellectual gap between the two, and the claim that Charles had been pressured into marriage by his father were often discussed as possible causes of problems in the marriage. Reports began to emerge in the mid-1980s that Charles was having an affair with Camilla Parker Bowles, an old girlfriend he had once proposed to, but there was no proof until a series of tapes surfaced in the early 1990s.

The revealing of taped phone conversations between Charles and Camilla proved that they were having an affair and eventually led to Charles and Diana's separation in December 1992. Because Diana retained custody of their two sons, it was originally spec-

ulated that she would still be able to be crowned queen one day. However, when the royal divorce was announced in 1995 these plans were dropped, though she was able to retain the title of Princess of Wales. In addition to keeping her title, Diana was awarded a settlement of \$23 million plus \$600 thousand a year to maintain her private office, from which she continued her charity work.

For Charles the major problem was how to get the British people to accept Camilla after his popular ex-wife. One positive sign was in July 1997 when the British newspaper *The Daily Telegraph* gave their relationship its blessing: "She is good for his peace of mind, and is, therefore, performing a public service. It would make the best of a bad job if the public were to come gradually to accept this." The message seemed to imply that Charles was preparing the British people to accept Camilla as their possible future queen. For her part, Camilla emerged slowly as a society fundraiser, an important role for a possible member of the royal family.

### **New challenges**

Prince Charles faced his biggest challenge after the August 31, 1997, death of his ex-wife, Princess Diana, in an auto accident. He became a single parent to princes William and Harry. British newspapers warned him that he "must cast off his stiff upper lip and reach out to his sons and the people of Britain, or he could lose both." Charles was prepared for the task, engaging in public displays of affection with his sons and introducing Camilla to them. He realized that his support was vital to their recovery from the loss of their mother.

Prince Charles continues to take seriously the motto of the Prince of Wales, "Ich

Dien," which means "I serve," and he does so by trying "to show concern for people, to display interest in them as individuals, and to encourage them in a whole host of ways." He works to promote organic farming methods (farming without the use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides [bug sprays]). During a trip to Argentina in 1999, he visited a memorial honoring Argentine soldiers who were killed in the war with Britain over the Falkland Islands in 1982. Charles also took an interest in Britain's housing problem, criticized modern architecture and helped plan new and better housing developments. It seems that he has changed the public's perception of him as stuffy and out of touch. As *Maclean's* Joe Chidley wrote while talking about a visit by the prince to Canada in 2001, "The response to Charles's visit seemed in keeping with the man himself—introspective [thoughtful], and preferring substance over ceremony."

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**RAY**  
**CHARLES**

**Born:** September 23, 1932

**Albany, Georgia**

*African American musician and pianist*

The African American musician Ray Charles was widely admired as a singer, pianist, and composer (writer of music). He combined elements of jazz, gospel, and rhythm-and-blues to create a new kind of African American music known as soul.

### *Early life*

Ray Charles Robinson was born in Albany, Georgia, on September 23, 1932. His father, Bailey Robinson, worked as a railroad mechanic and handyman; his mother, Aretha Robinson, worked in a sawmill and sometimes washed other people's clothes to make extra money. In his autobiography (the story of his own life) *Brother Ray*, Charles remembered that "The old man . . . was hardly ever around." The family moved to Greenville, Florida, when Charles was still a child. At the age of five Charles watched his four-year-old brother drown in a laundry tub despite his efforts to save the boy.

Soon afterward Charles began to go blind. At the age of seven his right eye was removed, soon after which he became totally blind. He was sent to the Saint Augustine School for the Blind, in Florida, where he learned to read Braille (a system of raised dots on paper that the blind can use to read) and began to play the piano, clarinet, and saxophone. His blindness required him to use his strong memory for music and his gift of perfect pitch. At fifteen years of age Charles lost his mother; two years later his father passed away. The suffering Charles experienced, having gone blind and been left an orphan at an early age, gave his music added depth of feeling.



*Ray Charles.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

### *Early career*

After graduation from the Saint Augustine School, Charles traveled across Florida and performed with country and western bands. It was an experience that helped him later, when he added western songs to his performances. Shortly afterward he began touring with rhythm-and-blues bands, arranging and composing music as well as playing the piano, clarinet, and saxophone. In order to avoid being confused with boxing champion Ray Robinson (1921–1989), he dropped his last name and became known as Ray Charles.

Charles grew tired of Florida and decided to use his savings to go as far away as possible.

He wound up in Seattle, Washington, where he formed a band called the McSon Trio, which eventually had its own local television show. He also made several records for the Swingtime record company. In 1950 he moved to Los Angeles, California (where Swingtime was based), and continued to record and perform.

As a singer, blues singers Guitar Slim (1926–1959) and Percy Mayfield influenced Charles. At the piano, the jazz arrangements of Lloyd Glenn influenced him. The influence of gospel music was always present in his style. Charles's singing of romantic songs continued in the smooth tradition of Nat "King" Cole (1917–1965), but was boosted by deep-throated growls and high notes that were often thought to be coming from a female voice. His strong voice, his mixing of styles, and his skill as a musician gave him international appeal, but for an English-speaking audience his storytelling power added something extra that made Charles stand out from other artists.

### ***Invented soul music***

In 1954 a recording session with Atlantic Records combined gospel with rhythm-and-blues and established Charles's "sweet new style" in American music. Charles used the forms of both gospel music and standard blues in recording such songs as "My Jesus Is All the World to Me," "I Got a Woman," and "Baby, Let Me Hold Your Hand." Charles referred to his invention of soul music as a combination of jazz and gospel. He continued to tour, spending most of the 1950s on the road.

In 1959, on the ABC-Paramount label, Charles recorded his famous "Georgia on My Mind," which later became the official song of the state of Georgia. Charles won ten Grammy

Awards from the National Academy of Recording Arts and Sciences. In 1976 he recorded songs from George Gershwin's (1898–1937) *Porgy and Bess* with Cleo Laine. A television ad for Pepsi in the 1990s helped make sure that Charles would be known to a new generation of music lovers. He also kept the albums coming, including *My World*, *The Best of Ray Charles: The Atlantic Years*, and *Love Affair*. He also appeared in films such as *Ballad in Blue*, *The Blues Brothers*, *Limit Up*, and *Spy Hard*.

### ***Views on Elvis***

In 1994 Charles appeared on the NBC news show *Now*, admitting that "I'm probably going to lose at least a third of my fans," when he told interviewer Bob Costas (1952–) that Elvis Presley (1935–1977) had just copied what African American artists were already doing. "To say that Elvis was . . . 'the king,' I don't think of Elvis like that because I know too many artists that were far greater than Elvis." While this statement caused a stir, it was known that rock music, especially in its early years, was heavily rooted in blues. Many rock artists performed and became popular by playing music that originally belonged to African American blues singers.

### ***Later years***

Charles is married to the former Della Altwine, herself a gospel singer, with whom he has three children. He is also good friends with Stevie Wonder (1950–), Quincy Jones (1933–), and other musicians. Yet there is always a feeling of loneliness in his music that is, perhaps, best reflected in his recordings with Betty Carter (1930–1998) and his recordings from *Porgy and Bess*. Charles put it best himself in a 1989 *Downbeat* interview with Jeff Levinson: "Music is my breathing. That's my

apparatus. I've been doing it for 40 years. And I'm going to do it until God himself says, 'Brother Ray, you've been a nice horse, but now I'm going to put you out to pasture.'"

Ray Charles also remains in the news for his generous donations to educational institutions. In 2000 he gave Wilberforce University in Ohio a two-million-dollar gift to fund music scholarships, and in 2001 he donated one million dollars to all-black Morehouse College in Atlanta, Georgia. Both universities awarded honorary degrees (received without having met the usual requirements) to Charles. Charles also appeared in Las Vegas, Nevada, in 2001 to promote a new line of slot machines that the Alliance Gaming Corporation had created for the blind to use.

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## GEOFFREY CHAUCER

**Born:** c. 1345

**London, England**

**Died:** October 1400

**London, England**

*English poet, author, and courtier*

Called the father of English poetry, Geoffrey Chaucer is ranked as one of the greatest poets of the late Middle Ages (c.E. 476 c.–1500). He was admired for his philosophy as well as for his poetic talents. His best-known works are *The Canterbury Tales* and *Troilus and Criseyde*.

### Early years and marriage

The exact date and place of Geoffrey Chaucer's birth are not known. The evidence suggests, however, that he was born about 1345, or a year or two earlier, in his father's house located on Thames Street, London, England. It is likely that young Geoffrey attended school at St. Paul's Cathedral, and that he was introduced to great writing and the poetry of Virgil (70–19 B.C.E.) and Ovid (43 B.C.E.–? C.E.).

The first historical record of Chaucer reveals that in 1357 he was a page (a young boy in the service of a knight) in the household of the Countess of Ulster, the wife of Prince Lionel. During 1359–1360 Chaucer was in France with Prince Lionel (1338–1368). This was during the period of the Hundred Years' War (1137–1453) between England and France. Chaucer was taken prisoner. The English King Edward III (1312–1377) paid a ransom for his release.

Little is known of Chaucer for the next six years. Documents indicate that in 1366 he was traveling in Spain on a diplomatic mission. Soon after his return he married Philippa, the daughter of Sir Payne Roet.





Geoffrey Chaucer.

Philippa was a lady of the queen's chamber. Chaucer developed close ties with John of Gaunt (1340–1399), the Duke of Lancaster, and other nobility (people of high status). In 1368 Chaucer was promoted from page to squire (a position of status above a page and below a knight).

#### ***Early poetry and continued diplomatic missions***

The year 1369 marked a turning point both in the fortunes of England and in the career of young Chaucer. John of Gaunt, the Duke of Lancaster, asked Chaucer to compose a memorial poem, written in English, to be recited at the Mass for his deceased wife.

Prior to 1369 poetry in the English court had been written in French. French was the natural language of both the king and his queen. It is possible that he had written his English devotional poem, "An A B C," which is a translation from a French source, for the queen at some time before her death. The theme of his poem, *The Book of the Duchess*, which was written for intellectual and sophisticated people, was a fitting memorial to one of the highest-ranking ladies of the English royal household.

Chaucer was sent abroad on diplomatic missions in 1370 and again in 1372–1373. The latter mission took him to Florence and Genoa, Italy. There he may have deepened his acquaintance with the poetic traditions established by Dante (1265–1321) and Petrarch (1304–1374).

Times were good for Chaucer and Philippa because they were economically secure. John of Gaunt, the Duke of Lancaster, gave Chaucer a yearly salary of ten pounds, the normal income for a squire in an aristocratic or distinguished household. The king appointed Chaucer a position as controller (chief accounting officer) of taxes on wools, skins, and hides in the port of London. This position brought ten pounds annually and a bonus of ten marks. The City of London granted Chaucer a free residence above Aldgate. He remained at Aldgate until 1386, though he went abroad several times on diplomatic missions for King Edward, who died in 1377, and for King Richard II (1367–1400). In 1382 Chaucer was made controller of taxes on wine and other goods with the right to employ a deputy.

### Troilus and Criseyde

While he was living above Aldgate, Chaucer completed his translation of *Consolation of Philosophy* by Boethius (c. 480–524), a Roman philosopher, whose phrases and ideas repeat throughout Chaucer's poetry. He also probably composed some short poems and *Troilus and Criseyde*, a tragedy. This long poem is set against the background of the Trojan War and is based on an earlier poem by Giovanni Boccaccio (1313–1375), an Italian poet.

Chaucer lost his positions at the custom house in 1386 and moved to a residence in Kent, England. He served as a Member of Parliament from Kent. It is likely that Philippa died in 1387. Chaucer received his highest position, the clerkship of the royal works, in 1389. He served as clerk until he resigned in 1391. For a time thereafter he served as deputy forester for the royal forest at North Petherton, England. The king granted him a pension of twenty pounds in 1394, and in 1397 an annual cask of wine was added to this grant. King Henry IV (1553–1610) renewed and increased these grants in 1399.

### The Canterbury Tales

Between 1387 and 1400 Chaucer must have devoted much time to the writing of his most famous work, *The Canterbury Tales*. Chaucer gives his tale of pilgrimage, or journey to a sacred site, national suggestions by directing it toward the shrine of St. Thomas Becket (c. 1118–1170), a citizen of London and a national hero. The humor is sometimes very subtle, but it is also often broad and outspoken.

His original plan for *The Canterbury Tales* called for two tales each from over twenty pilgrims (people who travel to a holy site) making a journey from Southwark, England, to the shrine of St. Thomas Becket at Canterbury, England, and back. He later modified the plan to write only one tale from each pilgrim on the road to Canterbury, but even this plan was never completed. The tales survive in groups connected by prologues (introductions) and epilogues (conclusions), but the proper arrangement of these groups is not altogether clear. The series is introduced in a "General Prologue" that describes the pilgrimage and the pilgrims taking part in it.

### Life after Canterbury Tales

In addition to the translation and major works mentioned, Chaucer wrote a number of shorter poems and translated at least part of *Roman de la rose*, a late medieval French poem by Guillaume de Lorris and Jean de Meun. Chaucer's interests also included science. He prepared a translation of a Latin article on the use of the astrolabe, an instrument for finding the latitude of the sun and planets. He may also have been the translator of a work concerning the use of an equatorium, an instrument for calculating the positions of the planets.

In December 1399 Chaucer retired and leased a house in the garden of Westminster Abbey, London. In October 1400 Chaucer died.

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## CÉSAR CHÁVEZ

**Born:** March 31, 1927

**Yuma, Arizona**

**Died:** April 22, 1993

**San Luis, Arizona**

*Hispanic American labor leader and champion of migrant worker rights*

César Chávez was an Hispanic American labor leader who organized the first effective union of farm workers in the history of California agriculture.

### **Early years**

César Chávez was born on March 31, 1927, near Yuma, Arizona. He was the second of Librado and Juana Estrada Chávez's six children. His parents owned a store and worked on a farm of over one hundred acres that Chávez's grandfather, Césario Chávez, had established. The Chávez family was kicked off its land for failing to pay its taxes during the Great Depression of the 1930s (when nearly half the industrial workers in the United States lost their jobs, leading to lower demand for goods and services). The family then joined the many migrant (traveling) laborers streaming into California.

Chávez quit school while in the seventh grade to work full-time in the fields, but he was not really educated even to that level—he could barely read and write. In 1944 he joined the U.S. Navy and served for two years. Since he was never allowed to advance beyond low-level jobs, he continued as a farm worker in California upon completing his service. In 1948 he married Helen Fabela of Delano, California. Migrant farm workers at that time worked long hours in the fields for very little money. Sometimes their employers would not pay them at all, and there was nothing they could do—nowhere to turn. Many of the farm workers were not U.S. citizens. In an interview with the *Farm Worker Press*, Chávez remembered, "When I was nineteen I joined the National Agricultural Workers Union. But it didn't have any more success than any of the other farm workers' unions."

### **Organizing and boycotting**

As Chávez worked in the vineyards (land containing grapevines) and fruit orchards of California, he used his free time to educate himself. He read about famous labor leaders and became interested in the teachings of Mohandas Gandhi (1869–1948), the Indian leader who preached nonviolent resistance in his country's struggle for independence. Chávez, after a couple of failed strikes by his fellow workers, realized that better organization was needed. In 1952 he met Fred Ross, who was organizing Mexican Americans in California's barrios (mainly Spanish-speaking cities or towns) into the Community Service Organization (CSO). The organization concentrated on voter registration, citizenship classes, and helping Mexican American com-

munities obtain needed facilities (such as schools and medical care) in the barrios. The organization also helped individuals with typical problems such as getting welfare, dealing with crooked salesmen, and police injustice.

Chávez's work in the voter registration drive in Sal Si Puedes ("Get out if you can"), a rough San Jose, California, barrio, was so effective that Ross hired him as an organizer. Over the next ten years Chávez rose to become national director of CSO. In 1962, when the CSO rejected his proposal to start a farm workers' union, he quit the organization. At thirty-five years of age, with \$1,200 in savings, he took his wife and eight children to Delano to begin the slow, step-by-step organizing process that grew into the National Farm Workers Association (NFWA). Three years later, when members of the Agricultural Workers Organizing Committee of the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL-CIO) went on strike against the vineyards in Delano, they asked for support from Chávez's NFWA.

Thus began the great California table-grape strike, which lasted five years. In 1966 the two unions merged to form the United Farm Workers Organizing Committee (UFWOC) of the AFL-CIO, headed by Chávez. During the struggle to organize the vineyards, Chávez began an international boycott (to join together in refusing to deal with an item, person, or company in an effort to change practices) of California table grapes. This boycott brought such pressure on local grape growers that most eventually signed with Chávez's union. The boycott ended in September 1970. Soon after this victory Chávez started another boycott, this



*César Chávez.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

time against lettuce growers who used nonunion labor. Chávez became the first man ever to organize a farm workers' union in California that obtained signed contracts from the agricultural industry.

### ***Believed in nonviolence***

Chávez was an outspoken believer in Gandhi's idea of social change through nonviolent means. In 1968, to prevent violence in the grape strike, he fasted (went without eating) for twenty-five days. The fast was broken at an outdoor mass attended by some four thousand people, including Senator Robert F. Kennedy (1925–1968). Chávez fasted on sev-

eral other occasions, including twenty-four days in 1972 to protest antiunion laws in Arizona and for thirty-six days in 1988 to call attention to the continued poor treatment of vineyard workers. Chávez grew dangerously weak after this fast. Another protest involved Chávez leading a two-hundred-mile march from Delano to Sacramento, California, to call attention to the demands of the farm workers.

In July 1970 Chávez's union faced one of its most serious challenges, when the Teamsters Union signed contracts that applied to farm workers with some two hundred growers in California. Chávez met the challenge head on: within three weeks the largest agricultural strike ever to hit California had spread along the coastal valleys. About seven thousand farm workers went on strike to win recognition of Chávez's UFWOC as their bargaining agent, with the national boycott again used as the weapon. However, the union gradually lost its strength. From 1972 to 1974, membership decreased from nearly sixty thousand to just five thousand. But Chávez's efforts had made a difference. From 1964 to 1980, wages of California migrant workers had increased 70 percent, workers received health care benefits, and a formal policy for handling worker grievances (complaints) was established.

Chávez continued to fight for the rights of workers up until the day of his death on April 22, 1993. He had had nothing but a few glasses of water in the six days before his death. He was elected to the Labor Department's Hall of Fame in 1999 for his work toward improving the treatment of farm workers.

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## DENNIS CHAVEZ

**Born:** April 8, 1888

**Los Chavez, United States Mexican Territory**  
(present-day New Mexico)

**Died:** November 18, 1962

**Washington, D.C.**

*Hispanic American politician and statesman*

The first Hispanic American to be elected to the United States Senate, Democrat Dennis Chavez had a long and distinguished career in government service, first as a member of the U.S. House of Representatives and then as a senator from the state of New Mexico. Chavez was a strong supporter of education and civil rights.

#### **Early life**

The third of eight children, Dionisio Chavez was born to David and Paz (Sanchez) Chavez on April 8, 1888. His family lived in what was then the United States Mexican Territory. (The area did not become the state of New Mexico until 1912.) When Chavez was seven, the family moved to Albuquerque,

New Mexico. At school his name was changed to Dennis. Chavez quit school in the eighth grade and went to work. For the next five years he drove a grocery wagon to help support his family. He joined the Albuquerque Engineering Department in 1905, earning a large increase in income. Even after Chavez left school, he spent his evenings at the local public library. He was greatly interested in reading about politics, especially anything involving his hero, Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826).

Chavez worked as a Spanish interpreter for Senate candidate Andreius A. Jones (1862–1927) during Jones's 1916 campaign. Jones rewarded him with a clerk's position in the U.S. Senate in 1918. While clerking, Chavez entered Georgetown University to study law. Although he had never finished high school, he was admitted after taking a special entrance examination. He earned a law degree from Georgetown in 1920 and returned to Albuquerque, where he established a successful law practice.

### ***Political career begins***

A Democrat like his hero Thomas Jefferson, Chavez became active in local politics, winning a seat in the New Mexico House of Representatives. In 1930 he ran successfully for a seat in the U.S. House of Representatives, defeating the incumbent (prior officeholder), Republican Albert Simms (1882–1964). The population of New Mexico was still very small and Chavez served as the state's only representative. He was reelected once and then turned his sights toward the U.S. Senate.

In 1934 he ran against the powerful Republican incumbent, Bronson Cutting



*Dennis Chavez.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

(1888–1935). After a hard-fought, bitter campaign and a narrow defeat, Chavez challenged Cutting's victory, claiming that vote fraud had taken place. In May 1935, before the issue could be decided, Cutting was killed in an airplane crash. Chavez was appointed by New Mexico's governor Clyde Tingley (1883–1960) to serve in Cutting's place. Five senators expressed their unhappiness with this by walking out of the Senate as Chavez was being sworn in. Chavez, however, was the clear choice of the people of New Mexico when he was officially elected to the position in 1936, defeating a popular Republican candidate.

***Served with distinction***

New Mexico voters showed their support for Chavez by reelecting him to the Senate five times. Although he was often criticized for his independent positions on various issues, Chavez was a strong supporter of the New Deal programs of President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945). These programs tried to increase employment and bring about political and social reforms in the 1930s by expanding the functions of the federal government. Chavez also supported Roosevelt's 1937 plan to enlarge the Supreme Court, which many others opposed. Chavez's service on important congressional committees, such as those dealing with education, labor, and Indian affairs, allowed him to fight for causes he believed in. He protested cuts in the amount of land given to Indians and demanded an investigation of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs.

In 1938 Chavez coauthored the Chavez-McAdoo Bill, which established a federal radio station in South America to compete with broadcasts that were being made there by fascist governments (military governments controlled by one party that deny the freedoms of individuals and use violence and terror to silence any opposition). However, in a surprising move the following year, he urged U.S. recognition of Spain's fascist leader, General Francisco Franco (1892–1975). Chavez also voted on behalf of measures to help farmers and took an interest in matters involving employment programs and unemployment benefits.

Chavez earned the nickname "Puerto Rico's Senator" in 1942 when he started an investigation into the causes of poor social and economic conditions in Puerto Rico. His

support of a bill to improve living conditions and attract industry to Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands was important in helping it pass when it was put to a vote in the Senate. He also attracted national attention during his long fight for the creation of a federal Fair Employment Practices Commission. The bill was designed to protect workers from discrimination (unequal treatment) on the basis of race, religion, or national origin by employers or labor unions doing governmental work. The bill was eventually defeated in 1946—by only an eight-vote margin.

Dennis Chavez was the only national Hispanic American elected official of his time. He worked tirelessly to further the interests of the state of New Mexico and is credited for bringing significant amounts of federal funding as well as key military bases to the state. Chavez died in Washington, D.C., of a heart attack on November 18, 1962, at the age of seventy-four.

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**LINDA  
CHAVEZ**

**Born:** June 17, 1947

**Albuquerque, New Mexico**

*Hispanic American civil rights activist and author*

**T**hroughout her career Hispanic American civil rights activist Linda Chavez has helped change the role of Hispanics in America. Chavez believes that Hispanics and other minorities should be awarded advancement not because of their race but rather for their own achievements.

### ***A childhood without color***

Linda Chavez was born into a middle-class family in Albuquerque, New Mexico, on June 17, 1947. Her parents, both devoted Catholics, came from different racial backgrounds. Her mother was Anglo American and her father was Hispanic. Racial prejudice was not a concern during her early years as the city of Albuquerque was mostly Hispanic. Her father was proud of his heritage as a descendant of seventeenth-century Spanish settlers and also took pride in the United States. He served as an American during World War II (1941–45). Chavez's father considered his Hispanic background part of private life, not public. Her father's quiet approach to his racial identity was influential in Chavez's own ideas later in her career.

### ***Prejudice and the possibilities of education***

Chavez first came into contact with racial prejudice when her family moved to Denver, Colorado, when she was nine. Chavez witnessed firsthand the negative attitudes about minorities that would later inspire her to join in civil rights movements supporting the causes of Hispanics, African Americans, and women. She also became determined to excel in her schoolwork to overcome the low expectations that some people had of her as a Hispanic.



*Linda Chavez.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

After graduating from high school, Chavez attended the University of Colorado, where she decided to pursue a career in teaching—a career that she felt could play an important role in social reform. During her undergraduate studies, she married Christopher Gersten in 1967, but she kept her maiden name.

After graduating from the University of Colorado in 1970, Chavez went on to the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), where she began a graduate program in English literature. However, she became upset with the way she was treated by faculty and students because she was



Hispanic. Chavez left the university in 1972 and moved to Washington, D.C., with her husband.

### ***Active in education issues***

In the nation's capital, Chavez did not return to teaching but remained active in educational issues. She worked with the National Education Association (NEA), the largest teachers' union in the country. She served as a consultant (someone who gives expert advice) on education to the federal government's Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. In addition, she became an active member of the Democratic National Committee, participating in the promotion of a number of liberal causes. She eventually obtained a position with the nation's second-largest teachers' union, the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), which was known as an influential force in education policy.

### ***Looking for a role in Washington***

While editor of the AFT publication, *American Educator*, Chavez wrote a series of articles urging a return to "traditional values" in American schools. These writings soon brought her to the attention of conservatives in Washington.

Throughout the 1970s Chavez became increasingly dissatisfied with liberal views on minorities in America. She felt that liberals sought her out simply because of her representation as a Hispanic leader, not for her own ideas. Similarly, she developed a growing concern over national programs such as affirmative action (efforts to create equal opportunities for minorities and women in areas such as education and employment). Chavez believed that Hispanics should not be

stereotyped, or forced into traditional roles, as helpless minorities who could not get ahead without government aid. She believed Hispanics should be encouraged to succeed through individual effort.

With the election of Ronald Reagan (1911–) to the presidency in 1980, Chavez's ideas received praise from conservatives. She became a consultant for the Reagan administration in 1981. In 1983 she was appointed by the president to serve as director of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Chavez continued to criticize certain parts of the country's civil rights laws, especially programs such as affirmative action. Meanwhile, many liberal activists accused her of supporting Republican efforts to weaken the government's role in guaranteeing civil rights to minorities.

### ***Jumping into politics***

Finding herself lacking support from most Democrats, Chavez officially joined the Republican Party after being hired onto Reagan's White House staff in 1985. As director of the Office of the White House Public Liaison, Chavez was the most powerful woman on the staff. Her position gave her an increased level of influence with the president, but she left this post after less than a year's time in order to run for senator in Maryland.

For the senatorial race, Chavez ran as a Republican in a mostly Democratic state. The state's citizens were distrustful of Chavez's short residence in Maryland as well as her track record in her shifting political beliefs. On election day, Chavez was handed a devastating defeat. Soon afterwards, she removed herself from the political arena.

***From power to the pen***

Now free of political loyalties, Chavez returned to producing ideas for social and educational change. The Manhattan Institute for Policy Research, a conservative research institute, made her a fellow (an associate). She also became a regular contributor to many national publications. Her 1991 book, *Out of the Barrio: Toward a New Politics of Hispanic Assimilation*, brought renewed attention from politicians and the press. The work once again showed her belief that affirmative action and other programs created an unrealistic and unflattering picture of Hispanics as a group. As had been the case throughout her career, Chavez's words were often talked about in the media, but they created debate and raised awareness about the state of the nation's attitude toward minorities.

In 1995 she founded the Center for Equal Opportunity in Washington, D.C., a public policy organization that concentrates on three subjects: racial preferences, immigration and integration, and multicultural education.

In 2000 Chavez was honored by the Library of Congress as a "Living Legend" for her continued involvement and contributions to American culture. In 2001 the newly elected President George W. Bush (1946–) nominated Chavez for Secretary of Labor. Chavez later withdrew her name from consideration. It is believed that she did so because of media allegations that she had housed an undocumented immigrant in her home, which is against the law in the United States.

Despite the criticism she has received from many liberal and Hispanic American groups for her conservative views, Chavez has emerged as one of the most visible and influ-

ential figures fighting for civil rights and educational reforms. Her example as a successful political personality has made her a role model for many in the Hispanic community, inspiring a growing number of politicians in the minority group to join the Republican Party.

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## BENJAMIN CHAVIS MUHAMMAD

**Born:** January 22, 1948

**Oxford, North Carolina**

*African American activist, religious leader,  
and author*

**L**ifelong activist Benjamin Chavis Muhammad overcame racial injustice and wrongful imprisonment to become a vocal leader in the civil rights movement, which pressed for equality between the races.

***Descended from activists***

Benjamin Franklin Chavis Jr. (he took the last name Muhammad later in life) was born in 1948 in Oxford, North Carolina, into a long and distinguished line of preachers. His parents were Benjamin Chavis Sr. and



*Benjamin Chavis Muhammad.*

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Elisabeth Chavis. He grew up the only son in a family of four children. His great-great-grandfather, John Chavis, is considered to be the first black graduate of Princeton University, because he graduated from a New Jersey seminary (religious school) that later became the university. John Chavis, according to Benjamin, was killed in 1838 for teaching slave children to read and write.

In the mid-twentieth century, even as the walls of segregation (the act of separating people based on race) began to crumble, the worldviews of civil rights leaders like Chavis Muhammad and Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968) were shaped against this back-

drop of hatred and bigotry (intolerance of non-whites). Chavis became involved in his church, finding shelter from such hostile attitudes.

Chavis attended school at the North Carolina Colored Orphanage, where his mother worked as a teacher. His father made him a member of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) when Chavis was twelve.

Benjamin Chavis Muhammad's first act of protest against racial injustice came when he was a wide-eyed thirteen year old. On his way home from school each day, Chavis Muhammad would pass a whites-only library in Oxford, North Carolina. One day, tired of tattered hand-me-downs and desirous of a book with two intact covers on it, he boldly walked into the library. The librarians told him to leave, but he questioned that demand. "He asked why," a childhood friend told the *New York Times*. "A lot of us when we were told to go away . . . would just do so, but Ben would always challenge, always ask why." The librarians called his parents, but the incident, like the spunkiness of the boy at its center, could not be calmed and tempers flared. In a short time the library was opened to all races. A child's simple act of disobedience and intellectual curiosity had shattered the overt racism of an institution whose sole mission, young Chavis Muhammad knew, should have been the enrichment of minds—those of blacks and whites.

### ***College education and continuing civil rights work***

After graduation from high school, where Chavis Muhammad kept up his early interest in and support for racial equality, he went on to St. Augustine's College in Raleigh,

North Carolina. After two years at St. Augustine's, Chavis Muhammad went on to the University of North Carolina, graduating in 1969 with a bachelor's degree in chemistry.

In 1968—the year of King's assassination, which some observers feel brought an end to the modern civil rights era—Chavis Muhammad became a field officer for the United Church of Christ's Commission for Racial Justice. The Commission was organized in 1963 in response to the assassination of civil rights activist Medgar Evers (1925–1963) and the infamous Birmingham, Alabama, church bombing that killed four African American schoolgirls in 1963. The Commission coordinated racial justice strategies for national and regional organizations and led community organization and criminal justice campaigns.

In February of 1971 Chavis Muhammad was in Wilmington, North Carolina, to drum up support for a school desegregation lawsuit that had been brought by the NAACP. On a night of racial violence, Mike's Grocery, a white-owned store in a black part of town, was firebombed. A year later, the Wilmington 10 (as the nine black men, including Chavis Muhammad, and one white woman came to be known) were convicted of arson (illegally starting a fire) and were sentenced to a combined total of 282 years in prison. The lengthiest term, thirty-four years, was slapped on Chavis Muhammad.

### ***World focused on his imprisonment***

The case immediately attracted worldwide attention and became a celebrated focus of the civil rights movement in the United States. Defense attorneys pointed out 2,685 errors in the trial, but appeals were denied. The Wilmington 10 went to prison in 1976.

While in prison, Chavis Muhammad, who had been taught by King to see the positive in a negative experience, was frequently escorted in leg irons and handcuffs to Duke University, where he earned a master's degree from the divinity school (religious school) under a study-release program. A hard-working student, Chavis Muhammad dodged the prison's strict, 10 P.M., lights-out rule by reading his school books in the bathroom, which was lighted all night.

The Wilmington 10 case took a dramatic turn when three key witnesses from the trial admitted they had made up their stories after being pressured by local law enforcement authorities. North Carolina governor James Hunt reduced the sentences but left the convictions intact. Finally, in 1980, after Chavis Muhammad and the other activists had been released, a Justice Department investigation led to a federal appellate court's reversal of the convictions.

By 1985 Chavis Muhammad had been elected executive director of the United Church of Christ's Commission for Racial Justice and soon emerged as a national figure. He organized gang summits (meetings between leaders) to criticize the skyrocketing violence, the school drop-out rate, and rampant drug involvement hurting America's young people. He also participated in mainstream national politics and served as the clergy coordinator (religious coordinator) for the Reverend Jesse Jackson's (1941–) 1984 presidential campaign.

### ***Pioneered concept of “Environmental Racism”***

While Chavis Muhammad was at the Commission for Racial Justice, he became

associated with the growing environmental movement. In 1983 Chavis Muhammad had joined in a protest against the depositing of tons of contaminated soil in rural Warren County, North Carolina, where the population was 75 percent black and mostly poor. Chavis Muhammad, educated in school as a chemist and in the streets as an activist, saw the political issue clearly: industry's garbage was being passed off on the lower class, politically helpless members of society. Although the protest failed at getting the landfill removed, it did stop further landfills being added to Warren County.

Coining the term "environmental racism," Chavis Muhammad ordered a study that documented the extent of the crisis: three of the five largest toxic waste landfills in the country were in minority neighborhoods. He criticized federal, state, and local governments, as well as the mainstream environmental organizations, which were headed by whites and, in his view, cared more about the wetlands than the health of black people.

Chavis Muhammad's speech at the 1987 First National People of Color Environmental Leadership Summit cast much needed light on the environmental devastation destroying minority communities—not only those of African Americans, but of Mexican American farmers, Native Americans, and the peoples of Alaska. Thus he became one of the most visible spokespersons on environmental policy. After the election of President Bill Clinton (1946–) in 1992, Chavis Muhammad served as a senior advisor to the transition team studying the departments of Energy, the Interior, and Agriculture, as well as the Environmental Protection Agency.

### **Controversy**

When Chavis Muhammad won the election in 1993 as the executive director of the NAACP, he proclaimed: "Now is the time for healing. Now is the time for unity." It was soon discovered, however, that Chavis Muhammad had begun setting aside the organization's funds to use for a legal settlement on a sexual harassment case (the verbal or physical mistreatment of a sexual nature). In a twist of events, the NAACP's board of directors fired Chavis Muhammad in 1994. In 1996 a District of Columbia Superior Court ruled that the organization would not have to pay any part of a \$332,400 settlement reached in the case.

In a change of religious beliefs, Chavis converted to the Nation of Islam, a religious and cultural organization for African Americans, in February 1997 and took the name Muhammad. Chavis Muhammad's desire to join the Nation of Islam and still remain a minister of the United Church of Christ (UCC) was not allowed. The Eastern North Carolina Association of the UCC voted to terminate Chavis Muhammad's ministerial standing in April 1997. He said that God called him to the Nation of Islam, and that he hoped to unite Christians and Muslims in building a new nation.

Chavis Muhammad continues to work for the rights of African Americans. He was one of the organizers of the Million Family March that took place in Washington, D.C., in 2000.

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## JOHN CHEEVER

**Born:** May 27, 1912

Quincy, Massachusetts

**Died:** June 18, 1982

Ossining, New York

*American writer and author*

American writer John Cheever is best known for his keen, often critical, view of the American middle class. His stories are characterized by his attention to detail, his careful writing, and his ability to find the extraordinary in the ordinary.

### *Childhood and marriage*

John Cheever was born on May 27, 1912, in Quincy, Massachusetts. His parents, Frederick Lincoln Cheever and Mary Liley Cheever, had two sons. His father owned a shoe factory until he lost it due to the Great Depression of the 1930s (a time of severe economic hardship). His mother owned a gift shop and supported the family with the shop's profits.

Cheever attended Thayer Academy, a preparatory school in Braintree, Massachusetts. He was expelled from Thayer at age seventeen for smoking and poor grades. The result was Cheever's first published work, "Expelled." The short story appeared in *The New Republic* on October 1, 1930. The story is about ordinary lives and was written with

precise observation and straightforward language. It is a style and approach that Cheever developed over five decades.

After leaving school Cheever toured Europe with his older brother, Frederick. Upon their return, the brothers settled in Boston, Massachusetts. Frederick helped to support John as he wrote stories. In the mid-1930s Cheever moved to New York City. He lived in a bleak, \$3-a-week boarding house on Hudson Street in Greenwich Village. During this period Cheever helped support himself by writing book summaries for potential MGM (Metro Goldwyn Mayer) movies. Malcolm Cowley, editor of *The New Republic*, also arranged for Cheever to spend time at Yaddo, a writers' colony in Saratoga, New York. It was also during this time that Cheever began his long association with *The New Yorker* magazine. In 1934 the magazine published the first of 119 Cheever stories.

On March 22, 1941, Cheever married Mary Winternitz. They had three children. He spent four years in the army during World War II (1939–45) and later spent two years writing television scripts for, among other programs, "Life with Father."

### *Writing about "Cheever Country"*

In 1943 Cheever's first book of short stories, *The Way Some People Live*, was published. War and the Great Depression serve as a backdrop for these stories. This book reveals a lifelong theme for Cheever: the way some people live. His next collection of short stories earned him the serious praise of critics. *The Enormous Radio, and Other Stories*, written in Cheever's Scarborough, New York, home, was published in 1953. These fourteen stories plunge the reader deep into what



John Cheever.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

critics call “Cheever Country.” The characters are good people who begin life with a sense of well-being and order. Later that order and well-being are stripped away and never quite fully restored. The title story, for example, portrays an average young couple that wants to someday move from their New York apartment to Westchester. Their sense of the ordinary is shattered when they buy a radio that has the fantastic ability to broadcast bits of their neighbors’ lives. The radio picks up the sounds of telephones, bedtime stories, quarrels, and tales of dishonesty. This peep behind closed doors serves to destroy the couple’s own outward feelings of harmony.

The story ends with the young married couple arguing as the radio fills the room with news reports.

In 1951 Cheever was made a Guggenheim Fellow, a fellowship grant established in 1925 for writers. This grant gave him the money and the freedom to write. In 1955 his short story, “The Five-Forty-Eight,” was awarded the Benjamin Franklin magazine award, and the following year he took his wife and three children to Italy. Upon their return the family settled in Ossining, New York. He was elected to the National Institute of Arts and Letters in 1957 and won the National Book Award for the first of his novels, *The Wapshot Chronicle*. From 1958 through 1977 Cheever continued to write seven more books.

### *Personal problems and illness*

Cheever, at the height of his success, began a twenty-year struggle with alcoholism. This was a problem he did not fully admit to until his family placed him in a rehabilitation center in 1975. Earlier, in 1972, he had suffered a massive heart attack. After a long period of recovery, he wrote *Falconer*. This “dark” novel draws on his experience as a writing instructor in Sing Sing prison, as well as on his recovery from alcoholism and drug addiction. *Falconer* contains rough language, violence, and a prison setting. This novel is a departure from Cheever Country. Moreover, it is the first of his works to deal directly with homosexuality. Cheever’s journals reveal that, like the main character of *Falconer*, Cheever questioned his sexual preference and identity.

In the end Cheever could not fit the image he carefully developed for himself—

much like the fictional characters he created. John Cheever died of cancer on June 18, 1982. His final work, *Oh What A Paradise It Seems*, was published after his death.

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## ANTON CHEKHOV

**Born:** January 17, 1860

Taganrog, Russia

**Died:** July 2, 1904

Badenweiler, Germany

*Russian dramatist and author*

The Russian author Anton Chekhov is among the major short-story writers and dramatists in history. He wrote seventeen plays and almost six hundred stories.

### Early life in Russia

Anton Pavlovich Chekhov was born in Taganrog in South Russia on the Azov Sea on January 17, 1860. He was the third of six

children of Pavel Egorovich Chekhov, a grocery store owner. Chekhov's grandfather was a serf (a peasant who lives and works on land owned by another) who bought his family's freedom in 1841. The young Chekhov and his brothers and sisters worked in the family store and studied in the local school. Their extremely religious father often beat them. In 1876 his father's business failed, and the family moved to Moscow, Russia, for a fresh start. Chekhov, then sixteen, was left behind to finish his schooling.

The blond, brown-eyed Chekhov was a self-reliant, amusing, energetic, and attractive young man. In August 1879 he joined his parents in Moscow, where his father was a laborer and his mother did part-time sewing work. Chekhov immediately entered the medical school of Moscow University. He soon took his father's place as head of the household, a responsibility he carried the rest of his life. After graduating in 1884 he went to work in the hospital at Chikino, Russia, but by December of that year he had begun coughing up blood—the first symptom of the tuberculosis (an infection in the lungs) that eventually caused his death.

### First works

In an attempt to add to his income in Moscow, Chekhov wrote for the humor magazines he himself liked to read. His first story was published in March 1880 by a magazine called the *Dragonfly*, which went on to publish nine more of his stories, most of them signed "Antosha Chekhonte," that year. In the fall of 1881 he had stories accepted by the *Alarm Clock*, and he and his older brothers' work was published in a new humor magazine, the *Spectator*. His first book was *The*





Anton Chekhov.

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*Tales of Melpomene*, a collection of six humor pieces published with his own money (on credit) in mid-1884. Chekhov's first stories were full of wit and enthusiasm and showed his promise as a writer.

Chekhov's first book published by someone else, *Motley Stories*, came out in 1886 with his real name on it. The book did well, and Chekhov was recognized as a new talent. He began practicing medicine less and writing more. In February 1887 he was elected to the Literary Fund, an honor given only to prominent authors. *In the Twilight*, a collection of short stories, appeared in August. Chekhov's first completed play, *Ivanov*, was

produced in Moscow in November 1887. He stopped writing for humor magazines in favor of serious fiction and drama in an attempt to, as he stated in a letter, "depict life as it actually is."

### *Many successes*

"The Steppe" (1888), a story of the Russian countryside revolving around the adventures of nine-year-old Egorushka while on his way to a distant town with his uncle, began a new phase in Chekhov's writing career. Not only was it accepted by the high-class *Northern Messenger* magazine—bringing Chekhov a considerable sum of money—but it also was highly praised by other famous writers. In October 1888 he won the Academy of Sciences' Pushkin Prize. "The Lights," "The Name-Day Party," and "An Attack of Nerves" all appeared in this year.

Chekhov spent the summer of 1888 in the Ukraine (where his brother Nikolai died) and at Yalta. The events of this period inspired "A Dreary Story" (1889), in which a dying old man thinks back on what he considers his pointless life. After another collection of stories, *Children*, was published in March 1889, Chekhov decided that he could now support his family by his writing alone. He wrote some one-act plays and worked on *The Wood Demon*, but the St. Petersburg (Russia) Theatrical Committee rejected the play, deeply wounding him. In March 1890 his seventh book, a collection of stories entitled *Gloomy People*, appeared. Late in April 1890 Chekhov set out for the prison colony on the Siberian island of Sakhalin. After spending three months studying the island, Chekhov returned home and wrote *Sakhalin Island*, which was later published in serial form.

In February 1892 Chekhov bought a 675-acre estate outside of Moscow called Melikhovo, and he settled down on it with his family. Guests streamed out to visit him. By the end of 1893 he was supporting his family comfortably. He began writing more slowly and focusing more on writing plays than before, but his stories continued to appear in the leading St. Petersburg and Moscow magazines. Chekhov was popular and admired. He had a number of pretty, lively, and talented women friends, but none whom he felt strongly enough about to propose marriage. But in 1898, when he was thirty-eight and seriously ill, he met the actress Olga Knipper, and they began an affair.

### *Series of famous plays*

Chekhov's play *The Sea Gull* drew heavily on a romance between his former love Lidiya Mizinova and his writer friend I. N. Potapenko. The play had failed in its first presentation in 1896, but in 1898 in the new Moscow Art Theater it was such a spectacular success that the gull became, and remains, the theater's official emblem. Chekhov's other great plays followed quickly: *Uncle Vanya*, a new version of *The Wood Demon*, in 1897; *Three Sisters* in 1900–01; and *The Cherry Orchard* in 1903–04. They are all about the passing of the old order. In each, a group of upper-class landowners struggles to preserve their cultural values against the social change insisted on by the middle- and lower-class teachers, writers, and businessmen to whom the new life belongs.

Chekhov was at the height of his fame. He encouraged younger writers such as Ivan Bunin (1870–1953) and Leonid Andreyev (1871–1919), recommended writers for the

Pushkin Prize, and was eagerly sought out for advice and comment. In 1900 he became the first writer elected to membership in the Russian Academy of Sciences, and in 1901 he and Olga Knipper were married. She acted in Moscow during the season while he stayed in Yalta to improve his health. The letters between them indicate a deep affection. Chekhov's health worsened in 1904, and his doctors told him that he had to go to a hospital. In June 1904 he set off for Badenweiler, Germany. A friend who saw him in Moscow the day before he left for Europe quoted Chekhov as having said, "Tomorrow I leave. Good-bye. I'm going away to die." On July 2, 1904, he died in a hotel at Badenweiler. His body was returned to Moscow for burial.

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DICK  
CHENEY

**Born:** January 30, 1941

**Lincoln, Nebraska**

*American vice president, secretary of defense, congressman, and government official*

**D**ick Cheney is the forty-sixth vice president of the United States, serving under President George W. Bush (1946–). He helped plan the war on terrorism that began after the country was attacked in 2001. He also served as secretary of defense under President George Bush (1924–) and spent almost his entire career working for the federal government.

### *The young man*

Born in Lincoln, Nebraska, on January 30, 1941, Richard B. Cheney was raised in Casper, Wyoming, by his parents, Richard H. Cheney, a Department of Agriculture employee, and Marjorie L. Dickey. He attended Yale University but left in his second year to return home, where he worked for the next two years. Resuming his studies at the University of Wyoming in 1963, he earned his bachelor's degree in political science in 1965 and his master's degree one year later. In 1964 he married Lynne Vincent, and the couple had two daughters.

### *The road to Washington, D.C.*

Cheney went to work in the Wyoming state legislature and for Governor Warren Knowles (1908–1993) of Madison, Wisconsin, before landing a position in Washington on the staff of Congressman William Steiger (1938–1978) of Wisconsin. He went on to work as special assistant to Donald Rumsfeld (1932–), director of the Office of Economic Opportunity, under President Richard Nixon (1913–1994).

After Cheney left Washington for a little over a year to work for an investment company, in August 1974 the call came to join

Rumsfeld on the staff of President Gerald Ford (1913–). Cheney served as deputy assistant to the president. He remained loyal, good-natured, hardworking, and civil. He preferred just to work and did not try to attract attention to himself. These traits brought him to the post of assistant to the president and chief of staff when Rumsfeld became Ford's choice to head the Department of Defense.

### *Back to Wyoming, and back to Washington*

Ford's loss to Jimmy Carter (1924–) in the 1976 presidential election sent Cheney back to Wyoming and private employment. But the lure of Washington was too great, and in 1978 he ran for Congress as a Republican, winning the election despite suffering a heart attack during his campaign.

From January 1979 until March 1989, Congressman Cheney sided with conservatives on most issues. For example, he was in favor of spending more money on weapons to defend the country, and he opposed abortion (the purposeful termination of a pregnancy).

His dedication in Congress made him a natural choice to serve on the House committee that was set up to investigate charges that President Ronald Reagan (1911–) had traded weapons to Iran in return for the release of fifty-two Americans who had been taken prisoner there. Cheney defended the Reagan administration's actions.

### *Secretary of defense*

In 1989 President George Bush (1924–) chose Cheney for the job of secretary of defense. Cheney won praise for the invasion

of Panama and for the removal of that country's chief of state, General Manuel Noriega (1938–), who had been charged with bringing drugs into the United States. But Secretary Cheney's most important test came in August 1990, when Iraq invaded Kuwait. On January 16, 1991, the United States began a violent air war against Iraq. This was followed by a ground attack launched a month later that destroyed most of Iraq's military forces in 100 hours. The war made Cheney and Chief of Staff Colin Powell (1937–) popular heroes.

After the war with Iraq, Cheney turned to the task of reducing the strength of the U.S. military, closing some military bases and trying to find other ways to cut costs. He and the Bush team reduced the military budget, shrank the size of U.S. military forces, and signed a number of treaties in an effort to maintain peace around the world.

### ***Called back to serve***

After Bush lost his bid for reelection to Bill Clinton (1946–), Cheney returned to the business world as chief executive at the Halliburton Company, an oil drilling and construction services company. He remained a voice in government affairs, often commenting on Clinton administration choices, and he was mentioned by many as a possible candidate for vice president.

In 2000, Texas governor George W. Bush (1946–) asked Cheney to join his presidential campaign as his vice presidential candidate. After winning the election, Bush and Cheney were sworn in on January 20, 2001. Cheney went about his business quietly as always, leading many who were not familiar with his behind-the-scenes style to wonder if his



*Dick Cheney.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

health was a problem after having suffered four heart attacks.

However, after the terrorist attacks on the United States on September 11, 2001, Cheney showed how important he was to the administration. He advised the president to create the Office of Homeland Security and played a major role in planning and monitoring the country's war on terrorism. He also met with congressional leaders and foreign ministers to seek their support for the fight. Cheney's experience gained during the war against Iraq ten years earlier proved of great value to both President Bush and the country as a whole.

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## MARY BOYKIN CHESNUT

**Born:** March 31, 1823

**Statesburg, South Carolina**

**Died:** November 22, 1886

**Camden, South Carolina**

*American diarist and writer*

Mary Boykin Chesnut kept a famous diary that captured the struggles people experienced during the American Civil War (1861–65; a war between the northern and southern states). Her journal of the war years gives readers an in-depth view of what life was like for Southerners, especially women, during the war.

**Early years**

Mary Boykin Chesnut was born Mary Boykin Miller on March 31, 1823, in Statesburg, South Carolina. She was the oldest child of Mary Boykin Miller, the daughter of wealthy owners of a plantation (a large farm or estate

with resident workers or slaves). Her father was Stephen Decatur Miller, a prominent politician who strongly supported states' rights, the idea that individual U.S. states should have supreme powers over the national government to set their own policies, including the power to legalize slavery. He was a South Carolina senator at the time of Chesnut's birth and had previously served as a member of the U.S. House of Representatives. During her early years, Chesnut and her family lived on her grandparents' plantation near Camden, South Carolina. When her father was elected governor of South Carolina in 1828, the Millers moved to the capital city of Columbia, returning to Camden when Stephen Miller won a U.S. Senate seat in 1830. By the time her father resigned from the Senate in 1833 due to health problems, Chesnut had begun attending a local school in Camden.

When Chesnut was twelve, she was sent to Charleston, South Carolina, to attend Madame Talvande's French School for Young Ladies. There she completed her education with classes in literature, science, and history, as well as instruction in music, singing, and dancing. In 1836 she met James Chesnut, Jr., a Princeton University graduate who had visited the school to see his niece. James took an interest in the lively and intelligent girl, and over the following years he began to show romantic interest in her, despite objections from the Chesnut family. Even though Mary's family took her away for a time to Mississippi, partly to avoid James Chesnut's attentions, she married James on April 23, 1840, at the age of seventeen. She settled with her husband at his family's plantation outside Camden.

**Senator's wife**

When James Chesnut was elected to the U.S. Senate in 1858, the couple moved to

Washington, D.C. There Mary Chesnut enjoyed the social scene and became interested in the intense political arguments over states' rights. Mary supported the position that her father had promoted during his career and that her husband now championed. Although neither she nor James believed in the institution of slavery, they did uphold the right of states to make their own decisions on such matters.

Abraham Lincoln's election to the presidency in 1860 angered Southerners, and with the secession (formal withdrawal) of Southern states from the United States, the threat of civil war loomed. On November 10, 1860, James Chesnut became the first Southern senator to resign from his post.

### *Chesnut's diary*

In February 1861 Mary began a diary that recorded the explosive happenings around her during the years of the Civil War. Following her husband on his duties in the South, she provides a firsthand view of the political world of the Confederacy (the name for the Southern states that had seceded and fought as a group). After the war's first battles, she soon began to write of the horrors of the war as well. She recorded the stories she heard about various battles as well as her personal experiences, including tending sick and wounded soldiers and mourning the loss of friends and acquaintances. She strongly criticized the decisions of Southern leaders, and she complained about her lack of power as a woman in the South.

As the war worsened for the South, defeat seemed impossible to avoid by the beginning of 1865. To avoid danger, Mary moved to North Carolina, where, with growing hopelessness, she recorded the news of



Mary Boykin Chesnut.  
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the Confederate army's collapse. In April of 1865, Confederate general Robert E. Lee (1807–1870) surrendered in Appomattox, Virginia, ending the Civil War.

### *Publication of diary*

After the war the Chesnuts returned to Camden. In 1873 Mary began to evaluate the extensive diaries that she had compiled during the war, and eventually she decided to publish them. While working to prepare and polish the material over the next few years, she published one story from her diary in the *Charleston Weekly News and Courier*. This was

the only item that Mary published during her life.

In the late 1870s and early 1880s, Mary's work was interrupted by a series of illnesses affecting her lungs and heart. Both her husband and mother had died in January 1885, and she was left depressed and with a reduced income. She died of a heart attack in Camden on November 22, 1886.

After Mary's death, printed versions of her work appeared in the early 1900s. Although editors removed some material, even these incomplete versions became extremely popular for their wealth of information about the difficulties of Southern life during the Civil War. The diary also revealed her strong support for greater rights for Southern women, whom Mary felt were also enduring a kind of slavery in the traditional male-dominated society of the South. In 1981 a publication entitled *Mary Chesnut's Civil War* provided for the first time the complete version of her diary, revealing the full depths of Mary Chesnut's valuable personal history of the Civil War.

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## CHIANG KAI-SHEK

**Born:** October 30, 1887

**Ch'i-k'ou, Chekiang, China**

**Died:** April 5, 1975

**Taiwan**

*Chinese president and political leader*

Chiang Kai-shek was a Chinese political leader and the major figure of Chinese history from 1927 to 1948. He led the Chinese Republic during World War II (1939–45) and was eventually forced from power by the Chinese Communists. After 1950 he served as president of the Republic of China on Taiwan.

### Early years and military education

Chiang Kai-shek was born in Ch'i-k'ou, Chekiang, China, on October 30, 1887. Chiang was the son of a salt merchant and grew up in the densely populated province of Zhejiang. He received a traditional Chinese schooling which centered around Confucianism, a religious system based on the Chinese philosopher Confucius (551–479 B.C.E.).

In 1905 Chiang went to Ningpo to study and decided to pursue a military career. In 1906 he went to Tokyo where fellow Chekiangese Ch'en Ch'i-mei sponsored Chiang's entry into Sun Yat-sen's (1866–1925) revolutionary party, the T'ung-meng hui. When the revolution broke out in Wuhan, China, on October 10, 1911, Chiang returned to Shanghai, China, to fight under Ch'en. A series of triumphs by Ch'en and other revolutionists in the lower Yangtze Valley set the stage for the installation of Sun Yat-sen as

temporary president of the Chinese Republic. In 1916, Ch'en was assassinated.

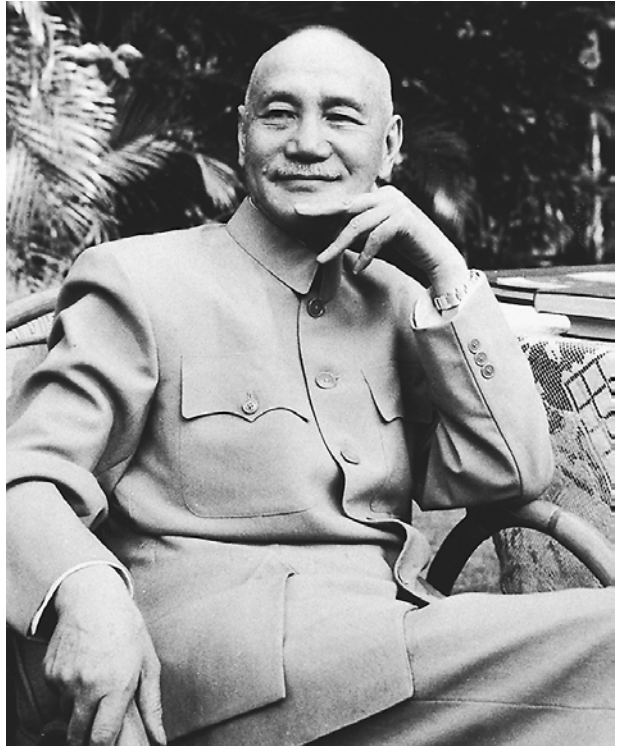
In the fall of 1917 Sun Yat-sen moved to Canton, China, where he tried to establish a military base through an alliance with a local warlord, Ch'en Chiung-ming. Chiang was assigned to Ch'en's staff, but as a Chekiangese, Chiang was not readily accepted among Ch'en's Cantonese followers.

### ***Military organizer***

By early 1922 differences in policy between Sun and Ch'en had reached the breaking point and Sun and Chiang hid on a gunboat, a small, armed craft. But before long, fortune turned once again in Sun's favor, and by February 1923 he was back in Canton. On April 20 Chiang assumed duties as Sun's chief of staff. Sun by now had turned for support to the revolutionary group in Moscow, and Chiang headed a group to seek military assistance in the former Soviet Union, a formerly powerful country made up of Russia and several other nations.

On May 3, 1923, Chiang became commandant of the Whampoa Military Academy. There, with Soviet advisers and arms, Chiang organized a military elite, the Whampoa Clique. After Sun Yat-sen died on March 12, 1925, a power struggle followed, and Chiang won. With support from the chief Soviet adviser, Michael Borodin, Chiang made the most of these circumstances and established himself as an able leader. Chiang also rid the party of leading Communists, people that believe in a political system where goods and services are owned by the government.

Having strengthened his political position, Chiang prepared to carry out Sun Yat-



*Chiang Kai-shek.*

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sen's dream of national reunification, or to bring the country back under one government. On July 9, 1926, he became supreme commander of the Northern Expeditionary Forces. Chiang's troops struck northward and Shanghai was occupied on March 22, 1927, and Nanking on March 24. In less than a year Chiang had brought the wealthy and heavily populated provinces of southern, central, and eastern China under Nationalist control.

However, Chiang was unable to untangle the remaining political and military rivalries. He briefly retired in 1927 to arrange his marriage to Soong Mei-ling. Chiang's bride was a member of a leading Christian family of



Shanghai, and one of her sisters, Soong Ch'ing-ling, was the widow of Sun Yat-sen. As a condition of the marriage, Chiang agreed to study Christianity; he eventually became a devout (deeply religious) Methodist.

### ***“Peacetime” Leader***

The decade from 1928 to 1937 was peaceful only in comparison to what came before it and what followed. Not a year passed without bloodshed among militarists, Nationalists, Communists, and Japanese invaders. German advisers and arsenals helped build a modern army, which finally drove out the Communists from their base in Kiangsi and forced their demolished army to flee.

These were also years of promising developments in the Chinese cities, especially in the lower Yangtze Valley and Manchuria. With their emphasis on modern, urban development, the Nationalists secured the cooperation of many talented, foreign-educated intellectuals, and higher education flourished. At the same time Chiang initiated a “New Life Movement,” seeking to introduce China’s millions with military discipline and enthusiasm for Confucian values. However, neither this nor the ideas of Sun Yat-sen provided an attractive alternative to Marxism, the social and political philosophy that is the basis for communism. Moreover, two unresolved problems, the poor state of rural China and the thrust of Japanese aggression, provided opportunities for the Communists.

Kidnapped at Sian on December 12, 1936, by the Manchurian warlord Chang Hsüeh-liang, Chiang was forced to accept Chang’s demands that he join the Communists in a united front against Japan. But two

weeks later Chiang returned to Nanking a national hero.

### ***Wartime commander***

During the first year of the Second Sino-Japanese War (1937–45), where Japanese and Chinese forces clashed over land, Chiang’s popularity soared. From August to December 1937 his German-trained armies fought a magnificent holding action around Shanghai and Nanking. Proud and stubborn, Chiang symbolized China’s resistance against the Japanese war machine. His supremacy was confirmed in March 1938, when he assumed the title of Tsung-tsai (Party Leader).

By 1941, however, the wartime enthusiasm was beginning to crumble. The economy was headed into a tailspin, and the break with the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) was almost complete. By the time the United States entered the war with Japan in December, war-weary Chinese were losing faith. The American alliance proved disappointing. Through the good offices of President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945), Chiang was able to join the Great Powers in world diplomatic councils, but he received little respect from British prime minister Winston Churchill (1874–1965) and Soviet premier Joseph Stalin (1879–1953).

### ***Defeat in victory***

By Victory in Japan Day (V-J Day) on August 14, 1945, unresolved prewar problems that increased by wartime conditions had weakened Chiang’s government and allowed Marxist Mao Tse-tung (1893–1976) to expand control over a population of some one hundred million Chinese. The Marshall

mission, sent by President Harry Truman (1884–1972) on October 27, 1945, to work with both sides, failed to prevent the outbreak of civil war. Overconfident at the outset, Chiang committed serious mistakes on the battlefield.

By 1948 the tide of battle had turned against the Nationalists. Mukden fell on November 1, 1948, followed two months later by Peiping. On January 21, 1949, Chiang retired from the presidency, leaving Li Tsung-jen with the thankless job of trying to salvage something from a situation beyond repair.

### *Island exile*

Many of the goals that escaped Chiang on the vast mainland came within reach on the island of Taiwan (Formosa), a seat of the Chinese Nationalist government. There, he gained unchallenged and virtually unlimited power. After 1954 the island enjoyed a spectacular economic boom, making its standard of living second only to Japan's among the nations of Asia.

The year 1972 proved to be pivotal for Chiang Kai-shek and Taiwan because President Richard Nixon (1913–1994) visited the People's Republic of China. President Nixon also agreed that Taiwan was a part of China. These diplomatic setbacks, mixed with failing health, had many questioning Chiang Kai-shek's ability to lead the country. His son, Chiang Ching-kuo, who was appointed premier in May, assumed most of Chiang Kai-shek's duties. For the last three years of his life, Chiang Kai-shek was the ceremonial leader of the Republic of China, but his son was the practical leader. Chiang Kai-shek suffered a fatal heart attack on April 5, 1975.

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## JULIA CHILD

**Born:** August 15, 1912

**Pasadena, California**

*American chef, author, and television host*

**C**hef, author, and television personality Julia Child has probably done more for French-style food preparation than anyone else in history.

### *Early life*

Julia Child was born Julia McWilliams in Pasadena, California, on August 15, 1912, one of John and Julia McWilliams's three children. The children were raised in comfort: they were all sent to private schools, and the family had servants, including a cook. The children, all of whom were unusually tall, loved outdoor sports. In 1930 Julia went to Smith College in Massachusetts, where she majored in history. After graduation she took a job as a copywriter for a furniture company in New York City and enjoyed an active social life.



Julia Child.

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### Work and marriage

At the outbreak of World War II (1939–45) Julia joined the Office of Strategic Services, hoping to work as a spy. She was eventually sent abroad, but she worked as a file clerk, slept on cots, and wore an army uniform. While in Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) in 1943 she met Paul Cushing Child, a member of a distinguished Boston family, who was working as a maker of maps. Their romance bloomed when both were assigned to China. It was there that Paul, a noted lover of fine food, introduced her to cooking.

After the war Julia began to study cooking in Beverly Hills, California. She and Paul

were married in September 1946 and moved to Washington, D.C., where he had taken a position with the Foreign Service. After he was sent to Paris, France, in 1948, Julia came to appreciate French food. She decided she wanted to learn about French cooking and, after studying the language, she enrolled at the famous Cordon Bleu cooking school. With two fellow students, Simone Beck and Louisette Bertholle, she formed a cooking school called *LEcole des Trois Gourmandes* (School of the Three Gourmets). Julia began working on a cookbook with Simone Beck, writing while following her husband as he was sent to different parts of Europe.

### New popularity

In 1961 Paul retired, and the Childs settled in a large house with a well-equipped kitchen in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Julia's book, *Mastering the Art of French Cooking*, was published the same year. With its clear instructions and explanations and its many useful photographs, it was an immediate success. Child was hailed as an expert, and she began writing articles on cooking for magazines and newspapers. In 1963, after appearing on a television panel show, Child began a weekly half-hour cooking program, *The French Chef*. This proved even more successful than her book: her off-beat style, good humor, knowledge, and flair for teaching made her very popular. Her work was recognized with a Peabody Award in 1965 and an Emmy Award in 1966.

*The French Chef Cookbook*, based on the television series, was published in 1968. More well-received cookbooks and television shows followed, and in the 1970s and 1980s Child wrote regular columns for magazines and

made many appearances on television in addition to hosting her own show. She was also a founder of the American Institute of Wine and Food, an association of restaurants dedicated to increasing knowledge of food and wine.

### **Later years**

In 1989 Child's husband suffered a stroke and was moved to a nursing home. She coped with her loneliness by exercising, writing, doing public speaking, and working on television programs. She even provided a cartoon voice for a children's video. In August 1992 170 guests paid \$100 or more to attend her eightieth birthday party (proceeds went to the American Institute of Wine and Food). She became the first woman elected to the Culinary Institute Hall of Fame in October 1993.

In 1994 Paul Child died. Although saddened by his death, she brought out a new book and television series combination in each of the next two years. She also continued to host an annual trip to Italy for food lovers. In 2000 Child won the Legion d'Honneur, France's highest honor. In 2001 she moved to Montecito, California, and oversaw the opening of a restaurant named after her, Julia's Kitchen in Napa, California. In 2002 she donated the kitchen from her Cambridge home to the Smithsonian Institution, where it will be restored as an exhibit at the National Museum of American History.

Although a strong supporter of classic French cooking, Julia Child changed her approach during her career to reflect modern needs and trends, such as cooking with less fat and red meat and focusing on meals that can be prepared quickly. Above all, she tries to increase the public's awareness and appreciation of wholesome, well-prepared food.

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## SHIRLEY CHISHOLM

**Born:** November 30, 1924

**Brooklyn, New York**

*African American congresswoman and politician*

In 1968 Shirley Chisholm became the first black woman to serve in the United States Congress. Chisholm is a model of independence and honesty and has championed several issues including civil rights, aid for the poor, and women's rights.

### **Early education and hardship**

Shirley Chisholm was born in Brooklyn, New York, to Barbadian parents. When she was three years old, Shirley was sent to live with her grandmother on a farm in Barbados, a former British colony in the West Indies. She received much of her primary education in the Barbadian school system, which



*Shirley Chisholm.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

stressed the traditional British teachings of reading, writing, and history. Chisholm credits much of her educational successes to this well-rounded early education.

### ***Return to New York***

When Chisholm was ten years old, she returned to New York during the height of the Great Depression (1929–39). The Great Depression was a time of severe economic hardship when many people in the United States were unemployed. Life was not easy for the Chisholms in New York, and Shirley's parents sacrificed much for their eight children.

Chisholm attended New York public schools and was able to compete well in the mainly white classrooms. She attended Girls' High School in Bedford-Stuyvesant, a section of Brooklyn. Chisholm won tuition scholarships to several distinguished colleges but was unable to afford the room and board. At the urging of her parents she decided to live at home and attend Brooklyn College.

While training to be a teacher, Chisholm became active in several campus and community groups. She developed an interest in politics and learned the arts of organizing and fund-raising. Soon, she developed a deep resentment toward the role of women in local politics, which, at the time, consisted mostly of staying in the background and playing a secondary role to their male equals. Through campus politics and her work with the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), an organization that was formed in 1909 to work for equal rights for African Americans, Chisholm found a way to voice her opinions about economic and social structures in a rapidly changing nation.

### ***From the classroom to politics***

After graduating with honors from Brooklyn College in 1946, Chisholm began work as a nursery school teacher and later as a director of schools for early childhood education. She became politically active with the Democratic Party and quickly developed a reputation as a person who challenged the traditional roles of women, African Americans, and the poor. In 1949, she married Conrad Chisholm, and the couple settled in Brooklyn.

During her successful career as a teacher, Chisholm became involved in several organi-

zations including the League of Women Voters and the Seventeenth Assembly District Democratic Club.

### ***An outspoken politician***

After a successful career as a teacher, Chisholm decided to run for the New York State Assembly. Her ideals were perfect for the times. In the mid-1960s the civil rights movement was in full swing. Across the nation, activists were working for equal civil rights for all Americans, regardless of race. In 1964 Chisholm was elected to the assembly.

During the time that she served in the assembly Chisholm sponsored fifty bills, but only eight of them passed. One of the successful bills she supported provided assistance for poor students to go on to higher education. Another provided employment insurance coverage for personal and domestic employees. Still another bill reversed a law that caused female teachers in New York to lose their tenure (permanence of position) while they were out on maternity leave.

### ***A new congresswoman***

Chisholm served in the state assembly until 1968, when she decided to run for the U.S. Congress. Her opponent was the civil rights leader James Farmer (1920–). Chisholm won the election and began a long career in the U.S. House of Representatives, lasting from the Ninety-first through the Ninety-seventh Congress (1969–1982).

As a member of Congress, Chisholm attempted to focus her attention on the needs of her constituents (the voters she represented). She served on several House committees including Agriculture, Veterans' Affairs,

Rules and Education, and Labor. During the Ninety-first Congress, when she was assigned to the Forestry Committee, she protested her appointment and said that she wanted to work on committees that dealt with issues that were affecting her district. Forestry issues had little or no importance to the people she represented in Bedford-Stuyvesant.

### ***Taking a stand***

With the Vietnam War (1955–75) raging overseas, Chisholm protested the amount of money being spent for the defense budget while social programs suffered. The Vietnam War was a conflict in which South Vietnam, supported by the United States, was fighting against a takeover by the Communist government of North Vietnam. Chisholm argued that money should not be spent for war while many Americans were hungry, poorly educated, and without adequate housing.

Chisholm was also a strong supporter of women's rights. Early in her career as a congresswoman, she took a stand on the issue of abortion (a woman's right to prevent the birth of a child) and supported a woman's right to choose. She also spoke against traditional roles for women professionals (including secretaries, teachers, and librarians), arguing that women were capable of entering many other professions. Black women especially, she felt, had been pushed into stereotypical roles, or conventional professions, such as maids and nannies. Chisholm supported the idea that they needed to escape, not just by governmental aid, but also by self-effort. Her antiwar and women's liberation views made Chisholm a popular speaker on college campuses.

**Presidential contender**

In 1972 Chisholm ran for the highest office in the land—President of the United States of America. In addition to her interest in civil rights, she spoke out about the judicial system in the United States, police brutality, prison reform, gun control, drug abuse, and numerous other topics. Chisholm did not win the Democratic nomination, but she did win an impressive 10 percent of the votes within the party. As a result of her candidacy, Chisholm was voted one of the ten most admired women in the world.

After her unsuccessful presidential campaign, Chisholm continued to serve in the U.S. House of Representatives for another decade. As a member of the Black Caucus (a group of lawmakers who represent African Americans) she was able to watch black representation in the Congress grow and to welcome other black female congresswomen. In 1982, she announced her retirement from Congress.

**Life after politics**

From 1983 to 1987 Chisholm served as Purington Professor at Mt. Holyoke College in Massachusetts, where she taught politics and women's studies. In 1985 she was the visiting scholar at Spelman College, and in 1987 she retired from teaching altogether. Chisholm continued to be involved in politics by cofounding the National Political Congress of Black Women in 1984. She also worked for the presidential campaigns of Jesse Jackson (1941–) in 1984 and 1988. In 1993 President Bill Clinton nominated Chisholm for the position of Ambassador to Jamaica. Because of declining health, she turned down the nomination.

Although Chisholm broke ground as the nation's first black congresswoman and the first black presidential candidate, she has said she would rather be remembered for continuing throughout her life to fight for rights for women and African Americans.

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## FRÉDÉRIC CHOPIN

**Born:** February 22, 1810

**Zelazowa Wola, Poland**

**Died:** October 17, 1849

**Paris, France**

*Polish composer*

**F**rédéric Chopin, a Polish composer (a writer of music) and pianist, was one of the creators of the typically roman-

tic character piece. All of his works include the piano.

### **Early life**

Frédéric François Chopin was born on February 22, 1810, near Warsaw, Poland. He was the second of four children of Nicholas Chopin, a Frenchman, and his Polish wife, Justina, who had been a well-educated but poor relative in the Skarbek household, where Nicholas had been a tutor. At an early age, Chopin displayed artistic talents—he was an artist, wrote poetry, and played piano without any formal instruction. The gifted child also began composing his own music and had his first piece of music published when he was just seven years old.

Young Chopin had a good education and later studied music privately with Joseph Elsner, founder and director of the Warsaw Conservatory. In 1817 Chopin's first composition was performed publicly. A year later he himself performed in public, playing a concerto (music written for one or more instruments) by Adalbert Gyrowetz. By this time the young Chopin began drawing comparisons to Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756–1791), another composer who had demonstrated spectacular talent at a young age.

### **Musical training**

In 1826 Chopin became a full-time student at Elsner's conservatory, where he received an excellent foundation in theory, harmony, and melody. Elsner, after recognizing that Chopin's style was too original to force into traditional patterns, granted Chopin the freedom to develop along clear personal lines.



*Frédéric Chopin.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

After visiting Berlin, Germany, where Chopin was exposed to the music of George Frederick Handel (1685–1759) and Felix Mendelssohn (1809–1847), Chopin returned to Warsaw and heard Nicolò Paganini (1782–1840). Chopin recognized that he must leave Warsaw for exposure to other musicians. He went to Vienna, Austria, to try to arrange the publication of several of his works. After a successful debut at the Kärntner Theater on August 11, 1829, he returned home only to prepare for a concert tour, this time through Germany and Italy. In Vienna Chopin composed the B Minor Scherzo and the G Minor Ballade, as well as



others that demonstrated Chopin's fully developed personal style.

### ***Middle period***

When the twenty-year-old Chopin arrived in Paris, poor physical health prevented him from giving public performances. Nevertheless, he became a significant figure in Parisian artistic circles, numbering among his friends musicians, writers, and painters, as well as many wealthy and talented women.

Chopin recognized that he did not have the stamina (strength) to compete in public against such talents as Franz Liszt (1811–1886) and Sigismund Thalberg (1812–1871). So long as he was able to earn enough by teaching, Chopin preferred composition to playing concerts. His musical tastes were public knowledge. Friendly with Hector Berlioz (1803–1869) and Mendelssohn, he was not impressed with their music. Nor, for that matter, did he appreciate Robert Schumann's (1810–1856) work, despite Schumann's warm welcome written for the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik* when Chopin first arrived in Paris. Schumann introduced Clara Wieck to Chopin's work, and eventually her performances of Chopin's pieces made favorable impressions on many audiences.

### ***Final years***

Several young ladies appear to have been the object of Chopin's affections over the years, but the most celebrated female with whom he had a relationship was Aurore Dudevant, known as George Sand, whom he met in 1836. For nine years, beginning in 1838, after he had composed the "Funeral March" (which later became part of the B-flat Minor Sonata), she was his closest associate.

Despite failing health, the composer completed his twenty-four Preludes in Valldemosa, Majorca (one of the Balearic Islands in the western Mediterranean).

In 1846 Sand's children became a problem. Chopin sided with Solange, Sand's daughter, in arguments against Sand and her son, Maurice. Separation became inevitable, and the beginning of the end for Chopin. His health failed, and he lost all interest in composition. Chopin then moved to England, where he gave several private performances in London and on May 15 played for Queen Victoria (1819–1901). After a rest in Scotland, he returned to London in the fall of 1848, where on November 16 he played a benefit for Polish refugees at the Guildhall. He returned to Paris shortly afterward, where he died of tuberculosis (a disease that attacks the lungs and bones) on October 17, 1849, in Paris, France.

Although Chopin's output was rather small compared to other great composers, his works such as his sonatas (music for one instrument) in B flat minor (1840) and the concertos in E minor (1833) are still some of the most popular pieces in classical music.

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# JEAN CHRÉTIEN

**Born:** January 11, 1934

**Shawinigan, Quebec, Canada**

*Canadian prime minister and politician*

Jean Chrétien was elected ten times to Canada's House of Commons, held almost every major cabinet office, and in October 1993 was elected as his nation's twentieth prime minister.

## Early years

Joseph-Jacques-Jean Chrétien was born on January 11, 1934, in Shawinigan, Quebec, Canada. He was the eighteenth of nineteen children (only nine of whom lived past infancy) born to Wellie Chrétien and his wife, Marie Boisvert-Chrétien. Shawinigan was a town built around pulp-and-paper mills, and the Chrétien family lived in an apartment that was owned by the mill where Jean's father worked. In 1939 Jean's mother became ill. He was sent to a boarding school, where he worked hard at getting into trouble and not studying—trying to get expelled so that he could go back home.

Jean's father was a Liberal Party organizer in addition to working three jobs. Jean began attending Liberal rallies and working for the party at age twelve. After graduating from high school, he won a scholarship to Laval University Law School in Quebec City, Canada, adding to his income with summer work at the Shawinigan paper mill. He was admitted to the Quebec bar, earning the right to practice law there, in 1958, a year after marrying Aline Chaîne.

## Career in government

In 1963 Chrétien was elected to Parliament from his home area of St. Maurice-Lafleche. When he took office he spoke barely a word of English, but he quickly caught the attention of Prime Minister L. B. Pearson (1897–1972) and Finance Minister Mitchell Sharp. They liked his quick mind, genuine Canadian patriotism, and commitment to a strong national government. Chrétien worked under Sharp as minister of state for finance, and he became minister of national revenue (income) in January 1968. Later that year Pearson was replaced as prime minister by Pierre Elliott Trudeau (1919–2000), and Chrétien was appointed Trudeau's minister of Indian affairs. He proposed a series of reforms to Canada's native people that met with much criticism.

Chrétien found that he preferred to be where the cash was. He was president of the Treasury Board, 1974–76; minister of industry, trade, and commerce, 1976–77; and the first French Canadian minister of finance, 1977–79. When the province of Quebec elected a government that called for policies to give the province more independence, the federal government used Chrétien to make the point that people living in Quebec had real power in Ottawa, and that their problems could be solved in a national setting.

The Trudeau Liberals were out of office briefly in 1979, but they swept back into power in February 1980. Chrétien was minister of justice with special responsibility to lead the federal side in a referendum (vote) called by the Quebec government to determine whether the province ought to secede (withdraw) from Canada. The Chrétien side won the referendum (which rejected the plan) by a



*Jean Chrétien.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

convincing margin. When Trudeau announced his retirement, Chrétien ran to become chief of the Liberal Party, finishing second in June 1984 to John Turner (1929–), who took over as prime minister. Chrétien was appointed deputy prime minister and secretary of state for external affairs. Later that year the Liberals under Turner lost badly to Brian Mulroney's (1939–) Conservatives. Chrétien returned to private law practice in 1986.

### ***Return to office***

After Turner's resignation in 1990, Chrétien again ran to become the leader of the Liberal Party, this time winning easily. The media

criticized him—he was labeled “yesterday’s man”—and a long illness in 1991 interfered with his work. In the national election of October 1993, however, experience showed, and the Liberal Party was returned to power, with Chrétien assuming control as prime minister. His first months were marked by efforts to promote honesty in government and to make budget cuts. In 1995 Chrétien helped defeat the Quebec Referendum, yet another attempt to make Quebec a separate entity from Canada. He was reelected in 1997.

Between 1994 and 1997 Chrétien had cut Canada's budget deficit (the amount by which spending exceeds income) by 70 percent, and by 2000 the country had a budget surplus (money available to spend). In September of that year Chrétien announced a \$23.4 billion (\$16 billion U.S.) increase in health care spending, as well as improved monitoring of the quality of health care.

In November 2000 Chrétien and the Liberal Party won a larger-than-expected victory in elections, and Chrétien became the country's first leader since 1945 to win three straight elections. During the campaign Chrétien was accused of using his influence to help his friends receive business loans, but a police review of the charges concluded that there was not enough evidence to proceed with an official investigation. There was speculation that the charges and Chrétien's advancing age might lead him to resign, but he announced that he intended to continue as prime minister.

In spring 2001 Chrétien attended the Summit of the Americas in Quebec City, Canada. During this meeting, thirty-four leaders of Western countries discussed such policies as creating a free trade agreement,

working to improve education, supporting democracy, fighting against the illegal drug trade, and working to improve people's living conditions.

After the terrorist attacks on the United States in September 2001, in which hijackers took control of jetliners and crashed them into the World Trade Center and the Pentagon, Canada sent troops to aid the United States in its fight against terrorists in Afghanistan. In March 2002 Chrétien met with U.S. president George W. Bush (1946–) to discuss Canada's continuing support in the United States–led fight. During this meeting Chrétien directed a comment toward the United States from Canada: "We are your neighbors, friends, and family. We have to work together. This problem concerns all nations of the world."

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## AGATHA CHRISTIE

**Born:** September 15, 1890

Torquay, England

**Died:** January 12, 1976

Wallingford, England

*English author and playwright*

Agatha Christie was the best-selling mystery writer of all time. She wrote ninety-three books and seventeen plays, including the longest-running play of modern-day theater, *The Mousetrap*. She is the only mystery writer to have created two important detectives as characters, Hercule Poirot and Miss Marple.

### Childhood and family

The daughter of an American father and a British mother, Agatha Mary Clarissa Miller was born at Torquay in the United Kingdom on September 15, 1890. Her family was comfortable, although not wealthy. She was educated at home, with later studies in Paris, France. Christie taught herself to read at five years old. She grew up in a family environment full of stories—from the dramatic, suspenseful tales her mother told her at bedtime to her elder sister's frightening creations. She began creating her own fictions, too, with the help of her nanny, her dolls, and her pets. In 1914 she was married to Colonel Archibald Christie, with whom she had one daughter.

### Early characters

In Christie's first book, *The Mysterious Affair at Styles* (1920), she introduced one of her two best-known detectives, Hercule Poirot. Poirot's character also makes clear Christie's debt to the mystery writer Sir Arthur Conan Doyle (1859–1930), the creator of the fictional detective Sherlock Holmes. Like Holmes, Poirot is a committed and convincing spokesman for a rational (reasoned and unemotional) approach to solving mysteries. (Poirot places his faith in his brain's "little grey cells"). Poirot's friend and companion, Captain Hastings, also



Agatha Christie.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

shares much in common with Holmes's friend Dr. John Watson. Hastings, like Watson, is a retired military man who is too trusting and often foolish, but he occasionally stumbles upon some observation that inspires the far-more-intelligent Poirot.

While writing in imitation of Conan Doyle, Christie experimented with many other versions of the sleuth, a term for a detective or solver of mysteries. Some of Christie's early sleuths included the married couple Tuppence and Tommy Beresford, whose specialty was hunting down spies. The Beresfords first appeared in her book

*The Secret Adversary* (1922), where their breezy and almost offhand approach to detection provided a sharp contrast to the methods of Poirot. Another Christie detective, Colonel Race—a mysterious man of few words—first appeared in *The Man in the Brown Suit* (1924). However, since his principal area of activity was in the English colonies (territories then under British government control), Christie only used him occasionally afterwards.

Superintendent Battle, who was strong, dependable, and hardworking, came onto the scene in *The Secret of Chimneys* (1925) and later solved *The Seven Dials Mystery* (1929). He was not a greatly attractive character, however, so Christie only used him as a minor character after that. Other sleuths who first appeared during this experimental period were the weird pair of Harley Quin and Mr. Satterthwaite, as well as the clever Parker Pyne. Pyne specialized not in solving murders, but in influencing the lives of others so as to bring them happiness or adventure. Pyne was often fortunate enough to have the assistance of Mrs. Ariadne Oliver, a mystery novelist who bore an uncanny resemblance to her creator, Agatha Christie.

### ***A mysterious breakdown***

The year 1926 was an important one for Christie. It saw the publication of her first hugely successful novel, *The Murder of Roger Ackroyd*, in which the narrator (the character in whose voice the story is told) is the murderer. It was also a year of personal tragedy. Christie's mother died in 1926, and Christie discovered that her husband was in love with another woman. She suffered a mental breakdown and on December 6 she disappeared

from her home, and her car was found abandoned in a quarry. Ten days later, acting on a tip, police found her in a hotel in Harrogate, England, where she had been staying the entire time, registered under the name of the woman with whom her husband was having his affair. Christie claimed to have had amnesia (severe memory loss), and the case was not pursued further. She divorced her first husband two years later.

In 1930 Christie married Sir Max Mallowan, a leading British archaeologist. She often accompanied him on his expeditions in Iraq and Syria and placed some of her novels in those countries. In *Come, Tell Me How You Live* (1946) she wrote a humorous account of some of her travels with her husband.

### Major works

In 1930 Christie also produced what is believed by many to be her best-written novel, *Murder at the Vicarage*. This mystery also marked the first appearance of Jane Marple, who became one of Christie's favorite sleuths and who showed up frequently thereafter in her books. Miss Marple was one of those complicated characters in whom readers delight. Behind her old-fashioned, grandmotherly appearance, Miss Marple's mind was coldly aware that all human beings are weak and that some are completely immoral.

In the mid-1930s Christie began to produce novels that bore her special manner. In them she arranged a situation that seemed highly unrealistic or unlikely, and then she placed characters, who acted for the most realistic of reasons, into this framework. In *Murder in the Calais Coach* (1934) the murder is committed through the planning of a dozen people. In *And Then There Were None*

(1939) nine murderers are invited to an island by an ex-judge who kills them out of an unshakeable sense of justice. In *Easy to Kill* (1939) four murders are committed in a tiny town without any suspicions being aroused, while in *A Murder Is Announced* (1950) the killer notifies others that the crime will occur in advance. Also interesting in these books is Christie's philosophy that it is quite acceptable to kill a killer, particularly one whose crime is especially horrible.

Christie wrote several works in addition to her fiction, including seventeen plays. Her favorite play was *Witness for the Prosecution* (1953), but the public disagreed. *The Mousetrap* opened in London in 1952 and was a huge success, playing there for over thirty years. In addition, many of Christie's mysteries were made into movies. In 1998 her play *Black Coffee* was adapted into a novel by another writer, Charles Osborne.

In 1971 Christie was named a Dame of the British Empire—a title given by the English king or queen in honor of a person's extraordinary service to the country or for personal merit. Five years later Christie died on January 12, 1976.

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## WINSTON CHURCHILL

**Born:** November 30, 1874

**Oxfordshire, England**

**Died:** January 24, 1965

**Oxfordshire, England**

*English prime minister, statesman, and author*

The English statesman and author Sir Winston Churchill led Britain during World War II (1939–45) and is often described as the “savior of his country.” Sir Winston Churchill’s exact place in the political history of the twentieth century is, and will continue to be, a subject of debate. But his strong personality and forceful determination made him a popular figure during the war years.

### **Early life**

Winston Leonard Spencer Churchill was born on November 30, 1874, at Blenheim Palace—a home given by Queen Anne to Churchill’s ancestor, the Duke of Marlborough. He was the eldest son of Lord Randolph Churchill, a Tory Democrat (a British political party) who achieved early success as a rebel in his party. Later, after Randolph Churchill failed, he was cruelly described as “a man with a brilliant future behind him.” His mother was Jenny Jerome, the beautiful and talented daughter of Leonard Jerome, a

New York businessman. Winston idolized his mother, but his relations with his father, who died in 1895, were cold and distant. It is generally agreed that as a child Winston was not shown warmth and affection by his family.

As a child Churchill was sensitive and suffered from a minor speech impediment. He was educated following the norms of his class. He first went to preparatory school, then to Harrow in 1888 when he was twelve years old. Winston was not especially interested in studying Latin or mathematics and spent much time studying in the lowest level courses until he passed the tests and was able to advance. He received a good education in English, however, and won a prize for reading aloud a portion of Thomas Macaulay’s (1800–1859) *Lays of Ancient Rome* (1842). After finishing at Harrow, Winston failed the entrance test for the Royal Military College at Sandhurst three times before finally passing and being allowed to attend the school. His academic record improved a great deal once he began at the college. When he graduated in 1894 he was eighth in his class.

### **Military journalist**

Very early on Churchill demonstrated the physical courage and love of adventure and action that he kept throughout his political career. His first role was that of a soldier-journalist. In 1895 he went to Cuba to write about the Spanish army for the *Daily Graphic*. In 1896 he was in India, and while on the North-West Frontier with the Malakand Field Force he began work on a novel, *Savrola: A Tale of the Revolution in Laurania*. The book was published in 1900.

More important, however, were Churchill’s accounts of the military cam-

paigms in which he participated. *Savrola* was followed by a book about the reconquest of the Sudan (1899), in which he had also taken part. As a journalist for the *Morning Post*, he went to Africa during the Boer War (1899–1902), where British forces fought against Dutch forces in South Africa. The most romantic of his adventures as a youth was his escape from a South African prison during this conflict.

### *Young politician*

In 1899 Churchill lost in his first attempt at election to the House of Commons, one of two bodies controlling Parliament in England. This was to be the first of many defeats in elections, as Churchill lost more elections than any other political figure in recent British history. But in 1900 he entered the House of Commons, in which he served off and on until 1964.

Churchill's early years in politics were characterized by an interest in the radical reform (improvement) of social problems. The major intellectual achievement of this period of Churchill's life was his *Liberalism and the Social Problem* (1909). In this work he stated his belief in liberalism, or political views that stress civil rights and the use of government to promote social progress. Churchill was very active in the great reforming government of Lord Asquith between 1908 and 1912, and his work fighting unemployment was especially significant.

In 1912 Churchill became first lord of the Admiralty, the department of British government that controls the naval fleet. He switched his enthusiasm away from social reform to prepare Britain's fleet for a war that threatened Europe. While at the Admiralty,



Winston Churchill.

Churchill suffered a major setback. He became committed to the view that the navy could best make an impact on the war in Europe (1914–18) by way of a swift strike through the Dardanelles, a key waterway in central Europe. This strategy proved unsuccessful, however, and Churchill lost his Admiralty post. In 1916 he was back in the army, serving for a time on the front lines in France.

### *Interwar years*

Churchill soon reentered political life. He was kept out of the Lloyd George War Cabinet by conservative hostility toward his style and philosophy. But by 1921 Churchill held a post as a colonial secretary. A clash with Turkish



president Kemal Atatürk, however, did not help his reputation, and in 1922 he lost his seat in the House of Commons. The Conservative Party gained power for the first time since 1905, and Churchill began a long-term isolation, with few political allies.

In 1924 Churchill severed his ties with liberalism and became chancellor of the Exchequer (British treasury) in Stanley Baldwin's (1867–1947) government. Churchill raised controversy when he decided to put Britain back on the gold standard, a system where currency equals the value of a specified amount of gold. Although he held office under Baldwin, Churchill did not agree with his position either on defense or on imperialism, Britain's policy of ruling over its colonies. In 1931 he resigned from the conservative "shadow cabinet" in protest against its Indian policy.

Churchill's years between world wars were characterized by political isolation. During this period he made many errors and misjudgments. Chief among these was his warlike approach to the general strike of 1926. Thus, he cannot be viewed simply as a popular leader who was kept waiting in the wings through no fault of his own.

### ***World War II***

The major period of Churchill's political career began when he became prime minister and head of the Ministry of Defense early in World War II, when British and American Allies fought against the Axis of Germany, Italy, and Japan.

"I felt as if I was walking with destiny, and that all my past life had been but a preparation for this hour," Churchill wrote in the

first volume of his account of the war. (This account was later published in six volumes from 1948 to 1953.) His finest hour and that of the British people came at the same time. His leadership, which was expressed in noble speeches and constant personal activity, stated precisely what Britain needed to survive through the years before the United States entered the war.

The evacuation of Dunkirk and the air defense of the Battle of Britain became legend, but there were and are controversies over Churchill's policies. It has been argued that Churchill was too sensitive to the Mediterranean as a theater of war, which led to mistakes in Crete and North Africa. The value of his resistance to the idea of a second front as the Germans advanced into Russia has also been questioned. And there has been considerable debate over the courses he pursued at international conferences, such as those at Yalta in February 1945.

Many believed some of Churchill's policies were responsible for the "cold war" of the 1950s and 1960s, where relations between Eastern Communist powers and Western powers came to a standstill over, among other things, nuclear arms. Although criticisms may be made of Churchill's policies, his importance as a symbol of resistance and as an inspiration to victory cannot be challenged.

### ***Last years***

The final period of Churchill's career began with the British people rejecting him in the general election of 1945. In that election 393 Labour candidates were elected members of Parliament against 213 Conservatives and their allies. It was one of the most striking

reversals of fortune in democratic history. It may perhaps be explained by Churchill's aggressive campaign combined with the British voters' desire for social reconstruction.

In 1951, however, Churchill again became prime minister. He resigned in April 1955 after an uneventful term in office. For many of the later years of his life, even his personal strength was not enough to resist the persistent cerebral arteriosclerosis, a brain disorder, from which he suffered. He died on January 24, 1965, and was given a state funeral, the details of which had been largely dictated by himself before his death.

There is little doubt that Winston Churchill was a political figure of enormous influence and importance. His record, both before 1939 and after 1945, was for the most part undistinguished. But as Anthony Storr writes: "In 1940 Churchill became the hero that he had always dreamed of being. . . . In that dark time, what England needed was not a shrewd, equable, balanced leader. She needed a prophet, a heroic visionary, a man who could dream dreams of victory when all seemed lost. Winston Churchill was such a man."

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## MARCUS TULLIUS CICERO

**Born:** January 3, 106 B.C.E.

**Arpinum, Latinum**

**Died:** December 7, 43 B.C.E.

**Formiae, Latinum**

*Roman orator and writer*

Marcus Tullius Cicero was Rome's greatest speaker and a productive writer of verse, letters, and works on philosophy and politics that greatly influenced European thought. His speeches and writings would become models for generations to come.

### **Early life**

Marcus Tullius Cicero was born on January 3, 106 B.C.E., at Arpinum near Rome, the oldest son of a wealthy landowner, also named Marcus Tullius Cicero. At a young age Cicero began studying the writings in his father's library. Both Cicero and his brother Quintus became greatly interested in philosophy and public speaking. When his father noticed this interest, he decided to take his sons to Rome for the best education that could be found. Rome was also a place where the boys could increase their social standing.

At an early age Cicero saw military service during the Social War (90–89 B.C.E.), but he managed to avoid involvement in the civil



Marcus Tullius Cicero.

wars that followed. Cicero's first appearances in court were made during the dictatorship (a form of government where one person rules with absolute power) of Sulla (81–80 B.C.E.). In one case, while defending Sextus Roscius of Ameria on a false charge of murder, he boldly made some outspoken comments on certain aspects of Sulla's regime. It would not be the last time Cicero spoke out about those of higher power.

In 79 B.C.E. Cicero left Rome to study in Rhodes. By 76 B.C.E. he was back in Rome, where he married Terentia, whose family was wealthy and perhaps part of the ruling class. In 75 B.C.E. he held the office of *quaestor*, which brought him membership in the Sen-

ate, the highest council in the Roman empire. In 70 B.C.E. he achieved his first great success, when he prosecuted Caius Verres for extreme mismanagement of government in Sicily.

In 69 B.C.E. Cicero held the office of *aedile* (public works and games) and that of *praetor* (judge). In 66 B.C.E., Cicero made his first major political speech in support of the extension of General Pompey's (106–48 B.C.E.) command in the Mediterranean. During the following years he acted as a self-appointed defender of that general's interests. In 63 B.C.E. Cicero became consul, or an official representing the government in a foreign land. He had reached the highest political office at the earliest legal age, a remarkable achievement for a complete outsider.

### *Disappointment and exile*

In the years after his consulship, Cicero watched Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.), Pompey (106–48 B.C.E.), and Crassus (140–91 B.C.E.) form the First Triumvirate, a powerful alliance within the Senate. Cicero refused offers to become a fourth member of this alliance, and he publicly expressed dislike for the violent methods Caesar used in his consulship. This led to Cicero's exile, or forced removal, to Macedonia. He lived there for sixteen months, until the efforts of his friends secured his recall in August 57 B.C.E.

During the next eight months Cicero tried to separate Pompey from his partners. Early in the summer of 56 B.C.E. Pompey ordered Cicero to stop his efforts. For the next four years he was largely out of politics, devoting himself to writing and occasionally emerging to make public appearances.

After Pompey's death Cicero took no part in politics and devoted himself to writing works on philosophy and other matters. Apart from his increasing dislike of Caesar's absolute rule, Cicero's life was made unhappy during these years by domestic sorrows. In the winter of 47–46 B.C.E. he divorced Terentia after thirty years of marriage. The following summer he was deeply grieved by the death of his much-loved daughter Tullia.

### *Second Triumvirate*

Cicero was not involved in the conspiracy against Caesar, though he strongly approved of it. After Caesar's assassination, he took a major part in establishing a compromise between Mark Antony (c. 81–30 B.C.E.) and those who killed Caesar. Before long he concluded that Antony was as great a threat to liberty as Caesar had been. But Octavian (63 B.C.E.–14 C.E.), having seized power in Rome by force, reached an agreement with Antony and Lepidus (died 152 B.C.E.) to set themselves up as a three-man dictatorship. They started by outlawing many of their enemies, and among the first names on the list was Cicero's. He could have perhaps escaped, but his efforts were half-hearted. In December 43 B.C.E. he met his death at the hands of Antony's men with courage and dignity.

As a politician Cicero was ultimately unsuccessful, since he was not able to prevent the overthrow of the republican system of government. It is in his speeches and his writings that Cicero's legacy truly lies.

### *The speeches and dialogues*

The texts of fifty-seven speeches have survived and Cicero delivered at least fifty more, nearly all of which were published but have since been lost. The collection of the existing

speeches is impressive both for its bulk and its quality. Of the legal speeches, "Pro Cluentio" (66 B.C.E.) is the longest and most complicated, but it gives a vivid picture of life in a small Italian town. The much shorter "Pro Archia" (62 B.C.E.) is notable for its sincere and persuasive defense of a life devoted to literary pursuits. Of the political speeches the "Catilinarians" are the most famous. The fourteen "Philippics" are probably the finest, however, because in them Cicero concentrated all of his energy and skill with a directness that he did not always achieve.

Nearly all of Cicero's works on philosophy, politics, or rhetoric (the study of speaking) are in dialogue form. They were written in an elegant Latin language of which Cicero was such a master. Several are devoted to ethics, religion, and other philosophical subjects. They are extremely valuable because in them he reproduced the theories of many of the leading Greek philosophers of the post-Aristotelian schools, such as the Stoics and the Epicureans, whose own works did not survive.

Another group of Cicero's work is concerned with political theory, especially "De republica" (54–51 B.C.E.), of which barely one-third survives, and "De legibus," started in 52 B.C.E. but perhaps never completed. These works were also to some extent based on Greek ideas. But the basis was reinforced by the Roman genius for the art of government and Cicero's own considerable experience of politics.

### *The letters*

The collection of Cicero's letters is undoubtedly the most interesting and valuable part of all his enormous literary output. It includes nearly eight hundred letters writ-

ten by him, and nearly another one hundred written to him by a wide variety of correspondents. The surviving letters belonged mainly to his last years. There are only twelve dating before his consulship, while more than a quarter of the collection was written in the last eighteen months of his life.

Some of the letters were as carefully composed as the speeches or dialogues. Most of them, especially those to his brother or to close friends like Atticus, have an originality that is often lacking in his more calculated work. In these intimate letters Cicero used a very informal style, with frequent use of slang and words or phrases in Greek.

The letters cover an immense range of topics, but above all, they give an incredibly vivid picture of Cicero himself. The letters demonstrate his energy and industry, his courage, his loyalty, and his basic honesty, kindness, and humanity. Thanks to his letters, we know Cicero as we know no other Roman.

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## LIZ CLAIBORNE

**Born:** March 31, 1929

**Brussels, Belgium**

*American fashion designer and businesswoman*

Founder of one of the world's most successful women's apparel (clothing) manufacturing companies, Liz Claiborne is a pioneer in designing reasonably priced, quality clothing for modern working women.

### **Early life**

Elisabeth Claiborne was born on March 31, 1929, in Brussels, Belgium. She was the only child of American parents, Omer V. Claiborne, a banker for the Morgan Guaranty Trust Company, and Louise Fenner Claiborne. Her father taught her to appreciate art and her mother taught her to sew. Claiborne spent her early years in Belgium and learned to speak French before English. In 1939 the family left Belgium for their home in New Orleans, Louisiana. Claiborne's father did not consider formal education important. Before she could graduate from high school, her father sent her to study art in Belgium and France. Although her parents expected her to become an artist, Claiborne wanted to pursue a career as a clothing designer.

When Claiborne was twenty-one years old her sketch for a woman's coat won a design competition sponsored by *Harper's Bazaar* magazine. She began working in New York City as a design assistant and model. During the 1950s she designed sportswear, dresses, and tailored clothing. From 1960 to 1975 she was the main designer for the junior dress division of Jonathan Logan, a major women's apparel manufacturer. During this time Claiborne also raised her son from her first marriage to Ben Schultz and two stepchildren from her second marriage to Arthur Ortenberg, a clothing manufacturer.

### *Starts her own company*

Claiborne saw a need for more comfortable professional clothes for working women. Unable to convince her employer to try to meet that need, Claiborne started her own company. Liz Claiborne, Inc. was founded in 1976 with approximately \$250,000, including \$50,000 of Claiborne and her husband's savings. Ortenberg was the company's secretary and treasurer; industry executive and friend Leonard Boxer handled production; and Jerome Chazen joined the company in 1977 to run the company's marketing operations.

Claiborne's clothes were instantly popular. Total sales for the first year were over two million dollars. Priced in a moderate range and sold in department stores, Liz Claiborne clothes became known among working women for their good quality materials, comfortable fit, good construction, and color selection. Sales increased to \$117 million in 1981. The company was considered one of the best managed in the highly competitive women's fashion business.

### *Continued success*

Within a few years after the first shares of stock in Liz Claiborne, Inc., went on sale in 1981, Claiborne and Ortenberg were millionaires. The company's market share and profits continued to grow. Claiborne added shoes, men's clothing, and perfume to the product line. The company's success was helped by what Ortenberg described as an "exploding market" of millions of women who graduated from college and entered the workforce during the 1980s. Encouraged by Claiborne's merchandise, women were becoming more confident about dressing for work.



*Liz Claiborne.*

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In 1986, when company sales reached \$1.2 billion, it joined the list of *Fortune* magazine's five hundred largest industrial companies in the United States, one of only two companies on the list that had been started by a woman. Also in 1986 Claiborne, who was company president, became chairman of the board and chief executive officer. She continued to advise the company's design teams, placing great importance on the company's goals of providing good fit, color, comfort, and value.

### *Later years*

Claiborne and her husband retired from active management of the company in 1989

in order to pursue environmental and charity work. The Liz Claiborne and Art Ortenberg Foundation was established in 1989 to provide support for protection of the wilderness. In 1990 Claiborne and her husband were elected to the National Business Hall of Fame. Claiborne was elected to the National Sales Hall of Fame in 1991, and she received an honorary (received without meeting the normal requirements) doctorate degree from the Rhode Island School of Design the same year.

Liz Claiborne, Inc., remains a fashion power and now employs over seven thousand people. The company continued its growth by purchasing other clothing companies such as Lucky Brand Dungarees and Laundry. In 2000, after receiving complaints from Muslims, the company was forced to recall eight thousand pairs of jeans with verses from the Koran (the holy book of the Islam faith) printed on them. The company also received some criticism over the 2001 release of a perfume called Mambo, which was seen as an attempt to cash in on the growing Hispanic population of the United States.

Liz Claiborne and her husband remain active in a number of charities and avoid the public eye as much as possible. At the 2000 American Fashion Awards presented by the Council of Fashion Designers of America, Claiborne was honored for her environmental work, particularly in helping to fight the killing of African elephants for their ivory tusks.

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## CLEOPATRA VII

**Born:** 69 B.C.E.

**Alexandria, Egypt**

**Died:** August 30, 30 B.C.E.

**Alexandria, Egypt**

*Egyptian ruler*

Cleopatra VII was the last ruler of Egypt from the house of the Ptolemy, a family that had ruled Egypt for generations. She earned an unfavorable reputation during her age, but as the lover of the Roman emperors Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) and, later, Mark Antony (c. 81–30 B.C.E.), Cleopatra has become a romantic legend in modern times.

#### ***The House of Ptolemy***

Third daughter of Ptolemy XII Auletes (c. 61–51 B.C.E.), Cleopatra was born Cleopatra VII Philopator. Her family could be traced back to the Macedonian house of the Lagid Ptolemies, who took the throne after the death of Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.). Fifteen consecutive Egyptian rulers from the house of Ptolemy led Egypt, beginning in 306 B.C.E. with Ptolemy I (died 284 B.C.E.) and ending with Cleopatra's death. The Ptolemaic rule was centered in the beautiful Egyptian city of Alexandria.

Historians report that Cleopatra had three sisters and two younger brothers. Both of her brothers ruled Egypt with Cleopatra

before their early deaths—Ptolemy XIII (died 44 B.C.E.) drowned during a fight with Caesar; Cleopatra killed Ptolemy XIV (47–30 B.C.E.) herself.

Much like those that ruled before him, Ptolemy XII's court was plagued with violence and corruption. Cleopatra learned her political lessons from her father. She watched his humiliating efforts to maintain himself on the throne of Egypt by buying the support of powerful Romans. On one such trip to Rome, Ptolemy XII's daughter, Berenice, seized the throne. But her rule did not last, as she was put to death upon her father's return to Alexandria.

When Ptolemy XII Auletes died, he willed the throne to his children, Cleopatra and her brother, Ptolemy XIII. The two ruled jointly as Cleopatra VII and Ptolemy XIII Philopator. The ministers of Cleopatra's ten-year-old brother found him much easier to control than his sister, however. As a result, Cleopatra was driven from Egypt in 48 B.C.E.

### ***Cleopatra and Julius Caesar***

Cleopatra made preparations to return to Egypt by force, but when Caesar arrived in Alexandria after the Battle of Pharsalus, she saw the opportunity to use him. She had herself smuggled to him in a rug. Ptolemy XIII died fighting Caesar, who restored Cleopatra to the throne with another brother, Ptolemy XIV, as coregent, or acting ruler.

The relationship between Caesar and Cleopatra grew from their mutual longing for power and money. Caesar wanted the riches found in Cleopatra's court, while she longed for power in Rome. Contrary to legend, Caesar did not stay long in Egypt with Cleopatra.



*Cleopatra VII.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

Although in 46 B.C.E. she gave birth to a son whom she named Ptolemy Caesarion, Caesar never formally recognized him. That same year Caesar invited her to Rome. Although he spent little time with her, her presence in Rome may have contributed to the sour feeling towards him which led to his assassination (political murder).

After Caesar was killed by a group of men plotting to overthrow his empire, Cleopatra returned to Alexandria in April 44 B.C.E. Shortly thereafter Ptolemy XIV died under mysterious circumstances. It is commonly believed that Cleopatra herself poisoned him. After her brother's death, she



made her son, Caesarion, her partner on the throne, and they awaited the outcome of the political struggle in Rome. She responded eagerly when Mark Antony summoned her and other puppet rulers to Tarsus in Cilicia after the Battle of Philippi. Matching her preparations to the man whose weaknesses she knew, she dazzled Antony and bent him to her will. She easily cleared herself of a charge of helping Brutus (85–42 B.C.E.) and Cassius (died c. 31 B.C.E.) in the conspiracy to assassinate Caesar. Also, at her request, Antony put to death three people she considered a threat to her throne.

### ***Cleopatra and Mark Antony***

In the winter of 41 and 40 B.C.E. Antony followed Cleopatra to Alexandria, where he enjoyed the pleasures of the Ptolemaic court and the company of the queen. Cleopatra hoped to tie him to her emotionally, but Antony left Egypt in the spring of 40 B.C.E.

In the autumn of 37 B.C.E. Antony sent his wife, Octavia, the sister of Roman Emperor Octavian (63–14 B.C.E.) back to Italy on the excuse that she was pregnant. He then went to Antioch to make final preparations for his invasion of Parthia. In Antioch he again sent for Cleopatra and went through a ritualistic marriage—a marriage with a ceremony but that was not recognized under Roman law. Antony was therefore still legally married to Octavia, although he recognized the twins Cleopatra had with him. Additionally, he made extensive grants of territory to her, including Cyprus, Cyrene, and the coast of Lebanon—all lands that were previously part of the Ptolemaic empire.

In 36 B.C.E. Cleopatra returned to Alexandria to await the birth of her third child with

Antony. The failure of the Parthian campaign and Octavian's exploitation of Antony's misadventure drove Antony further into the arms of Cleopatra. In return, she gave him immense financial help in rebuilding his shattered army.

When Antony defeated Artavasdes of Armenia in 34 B.C.E., he celebrated his triumph not in Rome but in Alexandria. On the following day he declared Cleopatra and Ptolemy Caesarion joint rulers of Egypt and Cyprus and overlords of all lands west and east of the Euphrates, a river in southwest Asia. For Cleopatra, acquiring these lands meant uniting the Ptolemaic empire with the land of the former Seleucid empire—all under her control. (Founded by the King of Babylon, Seleucus I [c.354–281 B.C.E.], the Seleucids were a family of kings that ruled over Macedonia from 312–64 B.C.E. The Romans had broken up the empire shortly before the time of Cleopatra's rule.) Meanwhile, Antony staked out his claims on Egypt's wealth for the coming struggle with Octavian.

### ***Antony and Octavian***

In Italy Octavian used the donations at Alexandria and Antony's relations with Cleopatra to turn public opinion against Antony. The Battle of Actium (September 2, 31 B.C.E.) was a fight for the control of the Roman Empire and led to disaster. Because Cleopatra's money built the fleet and supported it, she insisted on fighting at sea. When she fled from the battle with the war chest, Antony had little choice but to follow.

After Actium, Cleopatra tried to negotiate with Octavian for the recognition of her children as her successors in Egypt. But such recognition would cost her—Octavian

demanded Antony's death. Cleopatra refused. After the final battle outside Alexandria on August 1, 30 B.C.E., Octavian's troops defeated Antony. After receiving a false report that Cleopatra was already dead, he stabbed himself. Antony died in Cleopatra's arms inside her mausoleum (tomb), where she had barricaded herself with the treasures of the Ptolemies to keep them from Octavian.

Tricked into surrendering herself, Cleopatra tried again to negotiate with Octavian. Cleopatra was refused. She then carefully planned her own death. On August 10, after paying last honors to Antony, she retired to her quarters for a final meal. How Cleopatra died is not known, but on her left arm two tiny pricks were found, presumably from the bite of an asp (a snake).

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## **BILL CLINTON**

**Born:** August 19, 1946

**Hope, Arkansas**

*American president and governor*

Bill Clinton won the 1992 Democratic presidential nomination and defeated George Bush to become the forty-second president of the United States. He was elected to a second term in 1996. As a former president, Clinton continues to work for a variety of issues that became important to him during his political career.

### **Early life**

William Jefferson Clinton was born in Hope, Arkansas, on August 19, 1946. He was a fifth-generation Arkansan. His mother, Virginia Kelly, named him William Jefferson Blythe III after his father, who died in a car accident before his son's birth. When Bill was four years old, his mother left him with her parents while she trained as a nurse.

When Bill was eight, his mother married Roger Clinton. The family moved to Hot Springs, Arkansas, where they lived in small house with no indoor plumbing. Bill's stepfather was an alcoholic, and family life was frequently disrupted by domestic violence. When he was fifteen, Bill warned his stepfather never to hit his mother or half-brother, Roger Jr., again. "That was a dramatic thing," Clinton recalled years later in an interview with *Time* magazine. Despite his rocky relationship with his stepfather, Bill changed his last name to Clinton as a teenager.

When Clinton was seventeen, he met then President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963). As a result, Clinton decided that he wanted a career in politics. He entered Georgetown University in 1964. As a college student, he was committed to the movement against the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war in Vietnam in which South Vietnam, assisted by the United States, fought against a takeover by North



*Bill Clinton.*

*Reproduced by permission of the White House.*

Vietnam), as well as to the civil rights struggle. Clinton graduated from Georgetown in 1968 with a degree in international affairs. He was awarded a Rhodes scholarship, which allowed him to spend the next two years continuing his studies at Oxford University. In 1970 he entered law school at Yale University. After graduation, Clinton went into private practice as a lawyer in Fayetteville, Arkansas. He also began teaching at the University of Arkansas Law School.

### *Arkansas politics*

In 1974 Clinton decided to begin the political career that he had wanted since he

was a teenager. He ran for Congress, but lost the election in a very close vote. On October 11, 1975, Clinton married Hillary Rodham (1947–), whom he had met when they were fellow law students at Yale. In 1976 he was elected attorney general of Arkansas, an office he held from 1977 to 1979.

In 1978 Clinton ran for the office of governor of Arkansas. His election made him the youngest-ever governor of that state. In his first term Clinton tried to make numerous changes, many of which were extremely unpopular, including an attempt to raise the cost of vehicle licenses. In 1980 he ran for reelection as governor but lost to Republican Frank White (1933–). When Clinton campaigned for election in 1982 against White, he explained that he had learned the importance of adaptability and compromise. He received 55 percent of the vote and once again became governor of Arkansas.

While Clinton was governor of Arkansas, he pushed for the reform of schools, health care, and welfare. He also continued to be active in Democratic national politics. In 1991 he was voted most effective governor by his peers and was chosen to head the Democratic Leadership Conference. That same year Clinton announced that he was entering the 1992 race for president.

### *Clinton becomes president*

Clinton had much competition for the Democratic nomination for president. He came from a small state that many people thought of as unsophisticated and underdeveloped. Critics felt that his lack of experience in national government gave him little understanding of foreign policy. Clinton,

however, insisted that he had a fresh point of view to bring to government.

Clinton's campaign was also marked by personal scandal. He faced charges of extramarital relationships and questions about his avoidance of military service during the Vietnam War. Clinton remained in the race, however, and became the Democratic nominee, selecting Senator Albert Gore (1948–) as his running mate. Clinton focused his campaign on economic issues, especially unemployment and health care. In November 1992 Clinton was elected president, defeating both the president then in office, Republican George Bush (1924–), and independent candidate Ross Perot (1930–).

Once in office Clinton continued to work on economic issues, and interest rates and unemployment began to drop. He also appointed his wife to be the head of a task force to explore national health care reform. He supported the 1993 North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), which made a single trading unit of the United States, Canada, and Mexico.

### ***Reelection, scandal, and impeachment***

As the end of Clinton's first term approached, a new scandal arose. The scandal was called Whitewater, after the suspicious deal in which Clinton and his wife had bought land along the Whitewater River in Arkansas. In 1996 Clinton was elected to a second term as president. He won the election by a landslide, defeating his Republican opponent, Senator Robert Dole (1923–), with 49 percent of the popular vote and 379 electoral votes. Clinton's second term, however, became overshadowed by the investigation into Whitewater of lawyer Kenneth Starr (1946–).

The investigation became more serious when charges of Clinton's affair with Monica Lewinsky (1973–), a White House intern, were made public. At first Clinton denied the affair, but he later stated that he had been in an inappropriate relationship with Lewinsky. On December 19, 1998, the House of Representatives ruled to impeach Clinton, or try him in Congress for charges of lying under oath about his relationship with Lewinsky. The Senate then conducted an impeachment trial. Clinton was only the second president in U.S. history to face a Senate impeachment hearing. On February 12, 1999, the Senate found Clinton innocent. He apologized to the American people and to Congress for what he had done.

### ***Clinton's second term***

Clinton became the first U.S. president to address Russia's Duma, or lower house of parliament, on June 5, 2000. In his speech, he said that Russians did not need to fear America's missile defense program and that their future would be vital to the twenty-first century. Later that month, he signed into law a long-awaited e-signatures bill, which gave on-line "electronic" signatures the same legal status as handwritten signatures.

The Whitewater investigation was concluded on September 20, 2000, with a statement that there was not enough evidence to prove that either Clinton or his wife had taken part in any criminal wrongdoing.

On October 16, 2000, Clinton attended an emergency meeting with Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Barak (1942–) and Palestinian leader Yasir Arafat (1929–), who wanted to come to an agreement to end ongoing violence in their countries. Barak and Arafat

left the meeting with a “statement of intent” to end the violence, but neither side was completely satisfied. In that same month, Clinton sealed a major achievement of his administration by signing a bill which gave China permanent, normal trade status. This was considered the most important U.S. trade legislation since the passage of the North American Free Trade Agreement in 1993.

Later that year, Clinton signed into law a bill that set the blood-alcohol limit for drunkenness at 0.08 percent. This was a stricter level than most states had used previously. Supporters of the bill said that this national standard, which is used to determine whether or not a driver is legally drunk, could save hundreds of lives every year. Clinton signed another important bill into law in 2000, when he permanently established a separate reserve of heating oil for the Northeast. The law made it easier for the White House to withdraw oil from reserves in case of emergency. Finally, on November 13, 2000, Clinton began a historic journey to Asia, becoming the first American president to visit Vietnam since the Vietnam War. The purpose of the visit was to work on relations between Hanoi (the capital of Vietnam) and Washington, D.C.

#### ***After the presidency***

On January 19, 2001, Clinton’s last day as president, he publicly admitted that he gave misleading testimony in the Lewinsky investigation. He faced no criminal charges, but his license to practice law was suspended. Clinton was also ordered to pay a \$25,000 fine and admit that he had broken one of the Arkansas Bar’s rules of conduct.

Clinton continues to raise money for and speak on behalf of many issues. The many causes to which he devotes time and money include the economic development of small businesses, City Year (a national service program for young people), and acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease of the immune system) research and education.

Despite the scandals and difficulties that plagued the second half of his presidency, Clinton continues to be an active public figure, supporting many issues and causes that are important to the world. The youngest president since John F. Kennedy, he has come a long way from his small childhood home in Arkansas.

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# HILLARY RODHAM CLINTON

**Born:** October 26, 1947

**Chicago, Illinois**

*American first lady, U.S. senator, and lawyer*

**D**escribed as the first major U.S. female political figure since Eleanor Roosevelt (1884–1962), Hillary Rodham Clinton has become a strong force in American politics. As first lady, married to Bill Clinton (1946–), the forty-second president of the United States, she became active in domestic policy. Her election as a U.S. senator from New York in 2000 marked the first time that a first lady still in the White House was elected to office.

## *Her early years*

Hillary Diane Rodham Clinton was born on October 26, 1947, in Chicago, Illinois, and grew up, along with two younger brothers, in suburban Chicago. Her parents, Hugh and Dorothy Howell Rodham, raised their children with traditional middle-American values that stressed family, church, school, and social obligations.

As a youth, Clinton was influenced by her religious education, especially from the Reverend Don Jones, who introduced Rodham to some of the issues, causes, and movements of the time. It was under Jones's guidance that she read religious philosophers and helped the needy by babysitting the children of migrant farm workers. Another influence was meeting the Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–68) during his trip to Chicago on a speaking tour.

In 1965 Clinton enrolled in Wellesley College in Massachusetts, where she majored in political science and minored in psychology. Her undergraduate studies inspired her developing world view. A natural communicator, she motivated many of the movements for change occurring on the Wellesley campus. Graduating with highest honors in 1969, Clinton gave the first student address delivered during graduation ceremonies in the history of the college. In the fall she enrolled in Yale University Law School.

## *Washington and Watergate*

Clinton's experiences at Yale helped to focus her areas of interest and commitment toward issues related to children, especially the poor and disadvantaged. For a summer, Clinton worked with Marian Wright Edelman (1939–), a civil rights attorney who headed the Washington Research Project, a nonprofit group based in Washington, D.C. The group would later become known as the Children's Defense Fund. Afterwards, Clinton returned to Yale, where she volunteered in several projects aimed at improving the legal system to address children's rights.

After graduating in 1973, Clinton moved to Washington and took a full-time position with the Children's Defense Fund as a staff lawyer. In January 1974, she was chosen as one of forty-three lawyers handpicked to work on the legal staff of the House Judiciary Committee.

At the time, the committee was preparing documents resulting from the Watergate scandal. Watergate was named for the Washington, D.C., complex in which it took place. The Watergate scandal involved burglary and the illegal tapings of the conversations of the



*Hillary Rodham Clinton.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

Democratic opponents of Republican president Richard Nixon (1913–1994) during the 1972 presidential campaign. Eventually the American public would learn of Nixon's involvement in the scandal. The president's involvement all but forced him to step down from office.

After Nixon left office on August 9, 1974, the legal staff broke up. Soon Clinton accepted a teaching position at the University of Arkansas Law School. It was in Arkansas in 1975 that she married Bill Clinton, whom she had met while attending Yale.

### *Life in Little Rock*

Two years after their marriage, Bill Clinton became attorney general of Arkansas, and the couple moved to the state's capitol, Little Rock. In 1977 Hillary Clinton joined the Rose Law Firm, said to be one of the oldest law firms west of the Mississippi River. Her primary focus, however, remained in the area of children's rights, and she helped found Arkansas Advocates for Children and Families. In January 1978, following her husband's successful bid for governor, Clinton became Arkansas's first lady. In February 1980, she gave birth to a daughter, Chelsea Victoria.

In her eleven years as first lady of Arkansas, Clinton continued to pursue activities aimed at public service and policy reforms in the state. In her husband's second term she served as chair of the Arkansas Education Standards Committee. In 1985 Hillary Clinton led the establishment of the Home Instruction Program for Pre-School Youngsters (HIPPPY). The program brought instruction and tutorials into impoverished, or lower-income, homes, and became one of the largest programs of its kind in the country.

In 1987 she was elected chairperson of the board of the Children's Defense Fund and of the New World Foundation, a charity organization headquartered in New York that had helped launch the Children's Defense Fund. Also in that year, Hillary and Bill Clinton were awarded the National Humanitarian Award by the National Conference of Christians and Jews. For the first time, Hillary Clinton enjoyed national attention when the *National Law Journal*, in 1988 and again in 1991, named her as one of the "One Hundred Most Influential Lawyers in America."

### *Life in the White House*

After Bill Clinton was elected president of the United States in 1992, Hillary's involvement in political issues, both in the United States and in foreign countries, increased. She began to remold the role of the first lady. Hillary Clinton remained an advocate for many of the programs and issues to which she earlier devoted her time and professional skills. She provided leadership in a number of areas, including the Task Force on National Health Care, which was responsible for proposals and passing reform packages before Congress.

Her White House agenda went beyond health care reform and included pushing for children's and women's issues. Hillary Clinton proved to be an active and vital figure in the White House throughout her husband's presidency. In August of 1995, Hillary Clinton was invited to deliver the keynote address (a speech that covers the issues that are most important to a particular group of people) at the United Nations International Conference on Women near Beijing, China.

In November 1996, Bill Clinton was reelected president of the United States. In that same year Hillary Clinton published her first book entitled *It Takes a Village: And Other Lessons Children Teach Us*. The book became a best-seller.

On September 20, 2000, Independent Counsel Robert Ray announced his final report reviewing the Clinton's 1970s-era Whitewater real estate partnership. Although the first family's involvement in the partnership was somewhat unclear, "Whitewater," as it would become known, was a real estate scandal that followed the Clintons throughout the 1990s. Ray said in his final report reviewing the scandal that there was not

enough evidence to prove that either President Clinton or Hillary Rodham Clinton had been guilty of any criminal wrongdoing.

### *New York senator*

In 2000 Hillary Clinton announced that she was running for a seat in the U.S. Senate from New York and was later named as the Democratic nominee. Her Republican opponent was originally Rudolph Giuliani (1944–), the mayor of New York. However, when Giuliani had to drop out of the race after becoming ill, Republican Rick Lazio (1958–) jumped into the race. On November 7, 2000, Clinton won the election.

On September 11, 2001, terrorists attacked the United States and destroyed the World Trade Center towers in Manhattan, New York. Clinton then focused her energy on developing a plan to help that section of the city to rebuild. As a senator, Clinton also continues to work for laws to help children, women, and families.

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# TY COBB

**Born:** December 18, 1886

**Narrows, Georgia**

**Died:** July 17, 1961

**Atlanta, Georgia**

*American baseball player*

**T**y Cobb is regarded by some as the greatest all-around baseball player who ever lived. During his career, Cobb set dozens of records, including lifetime batting average, which still remains unbroken.

## *Early life and career*

Tyrus Raymond Cobb was born on December 18, 1886, in Narrows, Georgia, to William Herschel Cobb, a school administrator and state senator, and Amanda Chitwood. Cobb grew up in Royston, Georgia, and began playing sandlot ball (playground baseball) as soon as he could swing a bat. While his father wanted him to pursue an academic career, Cobb was determined to make it as a professional baseball player.

In 1904, despite family objections, he signed with the Augusta baseball team of the South Atlantic League and soon attracted notice. Cobb's aggressive play won him a contract in Augusta that would pay him \$125 a month. Grantland Rice (1880–1954), the famous sportswriter, saw him play for Augusta and named him the “Georgia Peach,” a title that Cobb wore proudly.

## *Dominating the game*

At a time when pitchers dominated the game and batting averages were low, Cobb

was a brilliant exception. He hit .326 in his last season in the minors before joining the Detroit Tigers of the American League on August 27, 1905. In 1906 Cobb hit .320, the fifth best average in the league and 35 points ahead of anyone else on his team. The next year he won the American League batting championship, hitting .350 and leading Detroit to the World Series. He quickly became the biggest attraction in baseball and would hit .300 or better for twenty-three straight years. During that time, he hit over .400 in three different seasons—his all-time high being .420 in 1911. Cobb led the league in hitting twelve times, nine of them in a row. During his peak years, 1909 to 1919, he so dominated baseball that historians refer to it as the era of the “Cobbian game.”

In 1909, for example, Cobb had the best year of any baseball player to that date, leading both leagues in hitting with an average of .377 and leading the American League in every offensive category. Once again he led the Tigers to a pennant (league championship), though they lost the World Series. As most of his teammates were markedly less talented than Cobb, he would never be on a world championship team, about the only honor available to a ball player that he did not win. This remained so even during his years as a player-manager for Detroit from 1921 to 1926, when the team never finished better than second place.

## *A baseball genius*

Cobb, in addition to his batting skills, amazing fielding, and talents as a base runner, was the fiercest competitor in baseball.

Not satisfied with simply winning, he had to run up the highest possible score and therefore put ruthless pressure on the opposition until the last man was out. A perfectionist in an era of what was called “inside baseball,” which emphasized hit-and-run plays, base stealing, and bunting, he mastered every aspect of his craft. Cobb was also a supremely intelligent player, a kind of baseball genius. “Know thy enemy” was his guiding rule, and his thorough knowledge of every competitor enabled him to “read” the opposition as no one else could.

The reasons why Cobb’s intelligence was so much admired in his playing days can be read in his autobiography (a book written by a person about their life). The chapter on hitting is a brilliant essay on how to keep the opposition off balance by never doing the same thing twice. “I tried to be all things to all pitchers,” Cobb wrote, summing up his teachings nicely. If that chapter is all about technique, the next one, “Waging War on the Base Paths,” is all about psychology (the study of mental behavior).

Once Cobb, annoyed by a catcher who was always telling journalists that Cobb’s reputation was overblown, performed an astonishing feat. On stepping up to the plate, he told the catcher that he was going to steal every base. After singling to first, Cobb then stole second, third, and home on four straight pitches.

### ***Later career and legacy***

Cobb remained a star after 1920, when the rise of Babe Ruth (1895–1948) and the introduction of a livelier ball changed the game to one in which batting power mattered



*Ty Cobb.*

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more than strategy. But the new “Ruthian game” was not to Cobb’s taste, and although he remained a skillful batter, his legs began to give out. In 1927 Cobb signed with the Philadelphia Athletics, and even though he averaged .357 at the plate, it was clear that his days as a player were numbered. He spent most of 1928 on the bench and retired at season’s end.

When Cobb left baseball, he held forty-three records. Although all but one have since been broken, his fantastic lifetime batting average of .367 appears safe. That he was the best all-around player who ever lived was recognized in 1936, when he led everyone in

votes for the first group of Baseball Hall of Fame inductees. He came in ahead of legends Ruth, Honus Wagner (1874–1955), Christy Mathewson (1880–1925), and Walter Johnson (1887–1946)—the other four original selectees.

### ***Cobb the man***

As a player Cobb was godlike, but as a man he had little to offer. Angry, ready to argue, touchy, and a loner, his teammates at first hated him for what one of them called his “rotten disposition” (bad attitude). He was tolerated only after his value became obvious. A bully on the field, Cobb was also the same off of it. In a racist age (a period where many believed one race was superior to another) he was notably abusive to African Americans. Cobb was a poor husband and father too. Both his marriages ended in divorce, and even though he had five children by his first wife, his relations with them were not close. As sometimes happens, he did better as a grandfather.

Like many ex-athletes, Cobb was restless in retirement, living simply despite his wealth—much of which he gave away. In 1953 he founded the Cobb Educational Foundation, which awarded college fellowships to needy Georgia students. Among his other charitable works was the hospital he built in Royston as a memorial to his parents. Cobb died in Atlanta, Georgia, on July 17, 1961, widely admired but not loved, unlike the other great ballplayer of his time, Babe Ruth.

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## NAT “KING” COLE

**Born:** March 17, 1919

**Montgomery, Alabama**

**Died:** 1965

**Santa Monica, California**

*African American musician, singer, and pianist*

**T**he American musician Nat “King” Cole was beloved by millions as a singer of popular songs, but his specialty was piano in the tradition of “cool” jazz.

### ***A musical childhood***

Nathaniel Adams Coles, the youngest son of the Reverend Edwards Coles and Perlina (Adams) Coles, was born on March 17, 1917, in Montgomery, Alabama. (Cole would drop the “s” from his name early in his career.) Cole’s father moved the family to Chicago, Illinois, in 1921. His father served as pastor of the Truelight Spiritual Temple on the South Side of Chicago. By the time he reached the age of twelve, Cole was playing the organ and singing in the choir of his father’s church under his mother’s choir direction.

Cole took piano lessons in order to learn how to read music. Inspired by show business, Cole formed his own big band, the Rogues of Rhythm. His older brother Eddie, previously bassist with Noble Sissle's orchestra, joined him.

### *The genius of Cole, Moore, and Miller*

In Hollywood for a series of gigs, Cole put together a trio that would become legendary. Cole's first bass player, later replaced by the legendary Johnny "Thrifty" Miller, was Wesley Prince, who introduced Cole to Oscar Moore, a movie studio guitarist. Although Irving Ashby eventually replaced Moore, the trio reached its peak with the combined genius of Cole, Moore, and Miller. The three musicians each possessed exceptional gifts of improvisation (to make up without practice), which blended original inventions with jazz standards.

Legend has it that during an after-hours vocalization with his trio, a young woman in the club crowned Cole the "King," an affectionate nickname, which stuck ever after. From this Cole would take his rightful place among the royalty of jazz, which included "Count" Basie (1904–1984) and "Duke" Ellington (1899–1974).

With the arrival of the spring of 1944 came a second Capital recording of "Straighten Up and Fly Right" and, on the flip side, "I Just Can't See for Lookin'." After this Cole strung together several hits: "Gee, Baby, Ain't I Good to You?" "Bring Another Drink," "If You Can't Smile and Say Yes," "Shy Guy," and then two real winners, "Frim Fram Sauce" and "Route 66."

### *End of the trio*

As success mounted, the jazz lessened and Cole's popular vocalization increased. At



Nat "King" Cole.

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the same time, the trio began to fade into the background, sometimes not appearing at all. With his recording of Mel Tormé's "Christmas Song," a new career was launched for Cole. This left little room for Moore and Miller and the trio broke up.

Cole, now a solo artist, settled in Los Angeles, California. He divorced his first wife, Nadine, whom he had married in 1937. He married for a second and last time to singer Marie Ellington. Although not related, Marie sang with Duke Ellington's band. Cole and Marie had three daughters: Carol, Timlin, and Natalie.

*Later years and legacy*

After a string of hits, Cole's life came to a sad ending. The sound quality of his voice came not only from his broad Southern accent and velvety voice, but also from his cigarette smoking. On a WNEW New York interview shortly before his untimely death in 1965 from throat cancer, host William B. Williams asked Cole how he could smoke so much and still be a singer. Cole responded by saying he had learned two things: the choice of the right key for a song meant everything, and smoking helps a singer get a husky sound in his voice that the audience loves. "So," Cole said, "if you want to sing, keep on smoking."

When Cole died, a legendary jazz artist and a voice millions knew as the voice of a friend was lost to the world. Cole's smooth, relaxed delivery established a style out of which others grew, including the styles of Mel Torme, Johnny Ray, Johnny Mathis (1935–), Oscar Peterson (1925–), Frankie Laine, Tony Bennett (1926–), and early Ray Charles (1930–).

On March 6, 2000 Cole was inducted into the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame in the Early Influences category. The category includes artists whose music predates rock and roll, but who inspired and had a major effect on rock and roll music.

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## BESSIE COLEMAN

**Born:** January 26, 1892

**Atlanta, Texas**

**Died:** May 1, 1926

**Jacksonville, Florida**

*African American aviator*

Bessie Coleman was the first African American to earn an international pilot's license. She dazzled crowds with her stunts at air shows and refused to be slowed by racism (a dislike or disrespect of a person based on their race).

*Early life*

Bessie Coleman was born on January 26, 1892, in a one-room, dirt-floored cabin in Atlanta, Texas, to George and Susan Coleman, the illiterate (unable to read and write) children of slaves. When Bessie was two years old, her father, a day laborer, moved his family to Waxahachie, Texas, where he bought a quarter-acre of land and built a three-room house in which two more daughters were born. In 1901 George Coleman left his family. Bessie's mother and two older brothers went to work and Bessie was left as caretaker of her two younger sisters.

Education for Coleman was limited to eight grades in a one-room schoolhouse that closed whenever the students were needed in the fields to help their families harvest cotton. Coleman easily established her position as family leader, reading aloud to her siblings and her mother at night. She often assured her ambitious church-going mother that she intended to "amount to something." After

completing school she worked as a laundress and saved her pay until 1910 when she left for Oklahoma to attend Langston University. She left after one year when she ran out of money.

Back in Waxahachie Coleman again worked as a laundress until 1915, when she moved to Chicago, Illinois, to live with her older brother, Walter. Within months she became a manicurist and moved to a place of her own while continuing to seek—and finally, in 1920, to find—a goal for her life: to become a pilot.

### ***Learning to fly***

After befriending several leaders in South Side Chicago's African American community, Coleman found a sponsor in Robert Abbott (1868–1940), publisher of the nation's largest African American weekly, the *Chicago Defender*. There were no African American aviators (pilots) in the area and, when no white pilot was willing to teach her to fly, Coleman turned to Abbott, who suggested that she go to France. The French, he insisted, were not racists and were the world's leaders in aviation.

Coleman left for France late in 1920. There she completed flight training at the best school in France and was awarded her Fédération Aéronautique Internationale (F.A.I.; international pilot's license) license on June 15, 1921. She traveled Europe, gaining further flying experience so that she could perform in air shows.

### ***Her mission***

Back in New York in August 1922, Coleman outlined the goals for the remainder of



*Bessie Coleman.*

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her life to reporters. She would be a leader, she said, in introducing aviation to her race. She would found a school for aviators of any race, and she would appear before audiences in churches, schools, and theaters to spark the interest of African Americans in the new, expanding technology of flight.

Intelligent, beautiful, and well spoken, Coleman often exaggerated her already remarkable accomplishments in the interest of better publicity and bigger audiences. As a result, the African American press of the country, primarily weekly newspapers, quickly proclaimed her “Queen Bess.”

In 1923 Coleman purchased a small plane but crashed on the way to her first scheduled West Coast air show. The plane was destroyed and Coleman suffered injuries that hospitalized her for three months. Returning to Chicago to recover, it took her another eighteen months to find financial backers for a series of shows in Texas. Her flights and theater appearances there during the summer of 1925 were highly successful, earning her enough to make a down payment on another plane. Her new fame was also bringing in steady work. At last, she wrote to one of her sisters, she was going to be able to earn enough money to open her school for fliers.

#### *A tragic ending*

Coleman left Orlando, Florida, by train to give a benefit exhibition for the Jacksonville Negro Welfare League, scheduled for May 1, 1926. Her pilot, William D. Wills, flew her plane into Orlando, but had to make three forced landings because the plane was so worn and poorly maintained. On April 30, 1926, Wills piloted the plane on a trial flight while Coleman sat in the other cockpit to survey the area over which she was to fly and parachute jump the next day. Her seat belt was unattached because she had to lean out over the edge of the plane while picking the best sites for her program. At an altitude of 1,000 feet, the plane dived, then flipped over, throwing Coleman out. Moments later Wills crashed. Both were killed.

Coleman had three memorial services—in Jacksonville, Orlando, and Chicago, the last attended by thousands. She was buried at Chicago's Lincoln Cemetery and gradually,

over the years following her death, achieved recognition at last as a hero of early aviation.

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## SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE

**Born:** October 21, 1772

**Devonshire, England**

**Died:** July 25, 1834

**Highgate, England**

*English poet and author*

Samuel Taylor Coleridge was a major poet of the English Romantic period, a literary movement characterized by imagination, passion, and the supernatural. He is also noted for his works on literature, religion, and the organization of society.

#### *Childhood talents*

Samuel Taylor Coleridge, the tenth and last child of the vicar of Ottery Saint Mary near Devonshire, England, was born on October 21, 1772. After his father's death in 1782, he was sent to Christ's Hospital for

schooling. He had an amazing memory and an eagerness to learn. However, he described his next three years of school as, “depressed, moping, friendless.” In 1791 he entered Jesus College, Cambridge, England. Because of bad debts, Coleridge joined the 15th Light Dragoons, a British cavalry unit, in December 1793. After his discharge in April 1794, he returned to Jesus College, but he left in December without completing a degree.

The reason he left was because of his developing friendship with Robert Southey (1774–1843). Both young men were very interested in poetry and shared the same dislike for the neoclassic tradition (a return to the Greek and Latin classics). Both were also radicals in politics. From their emotional and idealistic conversations, they developed a plan for a “pantisocracy,” a vision of an ideal community to be founded in America. This plan never came to be. On October 4, 1795, Coleridge married Sara Fricker, the sister of Southey’s wife-to-be. By that time, however, his friendship with Southey had already ended.

### **Poetic career**

The years from 1795 to 1802 were for Coleridge a period of fast poetic and intellectual growth. His first major poem, “The Eolian Harp,” was published in 1796 in his *Poems on Various Subjects*. Its verse and theme contributed to the growth of English Romanticism, illustrating a blending of emotional expression and description with meditation.

From March to May 1796 Coleridge edited the *Watchman*, a periodical that failed after ten issues. While this failure made him realize that he was “not fit for public life,” his next poem, “Ode to the Departing Year,”



Samuel Taylor Coleridge.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

shows that he still had poetic passion. Yet philosophy and religion were his overriding interests. In *Religious Musings* (published in 1796), he wrote about the unity and wholeness of the universe and the relationship between God and the created world.

The most influential event in Coleridge’s career was his friendship with William Wordsworth (1770–1850) and his wife Dorothy from 1796 to 1810. This friendship brought a joint publication with Wordsworth of the *Lyrical Ballads*, a collection of twenty-three poems, in September 1798. The volume contained nineteen of Wordsworth’s poems and four of Coleridge’s. The most famous of



these was “The Rime of the Ancient Mariner.” Coleridge later described the division of labor between the two poets: Wordsworth was “to give the charm of novelty to things of every day by awakening the mind’s attention from the lethargy of custom, and directing it to the loveliness and the wonders of the world before us,” while Coleridge’s “endeavours should be directed to persons and characters supernatural, or at least romantic.”

A second, enlarged edition of Coleridge’s *Poems* also appeared in 1798. It contained further lyrical and symbolic works, such as “This Lime-Tree Bower, My Prison” and “Fears in Solitude.” At this time Coleridge also wrote “Kubla Khan,” perhaps the most famous of his poems, and began the piece “Christabel.”

### **Personal difficulties**

After spending a year in Germany with the Wordsworths, Coleridge returned to England and settled in the Lake District. For the next twelve years Coleridge had a miserable life. The climate made his many ailments worse. For pain relief he took laudanum, a type of opium drug, and soon became an addict. His marriage was failing, especially once Coleridge fell in love with Sara Hutchinson, Wordsworth’s sister-in-law. Poor health and emotional stress affected his writing. However, in 1802, he did publish the last and most moving of his major poems, “Dejection: An Ode.” After a two-year stay in Malta (a group of islands in the Mediterranean), he separated from his wife in 1806. The only bright point in his life was his friendship with the Wordsworths, but by 1810, after his return to the Lake District, their friendship had lessened. Coleridge then moved to London.

Meanwhile, Coleridge’s poetry and his brilliant conversation had earned him public recognition, and between 1808 and 1819 he gave several series of lectures, mainly on William Shakespeare (1564–1616) and other literary topics. His only dramatic work, *Oso-rio*, written in 1797, was performed in 1813 under the title *Remorse*. “Christabel” and “Kubla Khan” were published in 1816.

### **Later life**

Coleridge spent the last eighteen years of his life at Highgate, near London, England, as a patient under the care of Dr. James Gillman. There he wrote several works which were to have tremendous influence on the future course of English thought in many fields: *Biographia literaria* (1817), *Lay Sermons* (1817), *Aids to Reflection* (1825), and *The Constitution of Church and State* (1829).

When Coleridge died on July 25, 1834, at Highgate, he left bulky manuscript notes that scholars of the mid-twentieth century found and began editing. When the material is eventually published, scholars and the general public will realize the extraordinary range and depth of Coleridge’s philosophical thoughts, and will understand his true impact on generations of poets and thinkers.

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# MARVA COLLINS

**Born:** August 31, 1936

**Monroeville, Alabama**

*African American teacher*

Schoolteacher Marva Collins founded Chicago's Westside Preparatory School in 1975. The success of the school and her teaching methods brought her media attention and inspired a made-for-TV film.

## *Influenced by father*

Collins was born Marva Delores Nettles on August 31, 1936, in Monroeville, Alabama. She has described her childhood as "wonderful" and filled with material comforts that included riding in luxury cars and having her own horse. Her father, Alex Nettles, owned a general store and later purchased a ranch and a funeral home. He was very attentive and supportive to Marva and her younger sister, Cynthia. By challenging Marva to use her mind, he gave her a strong sense of pride and self-esteem.

Marva attended Clark College in Atlanta, Georgia. After graduating in 1957 with a degree in secretarial sciences, she returned to Alabama to teach typing, bookkeeping, and business law at Monroe County Training School. Marva never intended to be a teacher, however, so she left the profession in 1959 to take a position as a medical secretary at Mount Sinai Hospital in Chicago, Illinois. While in the city she met Clarence Collins, a draftsman (one who draws plans and sketches) whom she married in September 1960.

## *Starts her own school*

In 1961 Marva Collins returned to teaching in Chicago schools, because she missed helping youngsters discover the joy of learning. She became annoyed with the many other teachers who did not share her enthusiasm for the job. With her pension money and the support of her husband, Collins opened the Westside Preparatory School in the basement of Daniel Hale Williams University. She welcomed students who had been rejected by other schools and were labeled "unteachable." She planned to give them the time and attention they needed.

Collins decided not to accept funds from the federal government because she did not want to follow all the regulations that came with such backing. She soon moved the school into the second floor of her home, which she and her husband remodeled to handle approximately twenty children ranging in age from four to fourteen years old. The school was eventually moved to its own building near Collins's home, and enrollment increased to over two hundred students. By offering a great deal of individual attention, strict discipline (enforcing obedience and order), as well as focusing on reading, math, and language skills, Collins was able to raise the test scores of her students, many of whom went on to college and did well. "It takes an investment of time to help your children mature and develop successfully," declared Collins in *Ebony*.

## *Media attention and criticism*

Collins started attracting attention in 1977 after a newspaper article on her and her school was printed. Several national publications picked up the story, and she was featured on the television program *60 Minutes*. A made-



Marva Collins.

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for-TV movie entitled *The Marva Collins Story*, starring Cicely Tyson, aired on the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) in 1981. In 1980 newly elected President Ronald Reagan (1911–) considered Collins for the post of secretary of education. Preferring to continue teaching and running her school, Collins announced that she would not accept the position if it were offered to her. She also turned down positions with the Chicago and Los Angeles County school systems. In 1982 she published a book explaining her method of teaching, *Marva Collins' Way*.

In 1982 critics charged that she had broken her vow not to accept federal funds and

that she had exaggerated her students' test scores. An investigation revealed that Collins received sixty-nine thousand dollars through the federal Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. Collins claimed that the money had come to her through a social services agency, and that she had no idea it had originally come from Washington, D.C. On the issue of Collins's success as a teacher, many parents of Westside students rallied in her support, as did Morley Safer of *60 Minutes*, who was quoted in *Newsweek* as saying, "I'm convinced that Marva Collins is one hell of a teacher." Many studies of students taught by Collins's methods showed dramatic improvement in their test scores and success in later life.

Collins received donations from many individuals, including rock star Prince, who became cofounder and honorary chairman of Collins's National Teacher Training Institute. Collins has received numerous awards for her work, and has taught her methods to over one-hundred thousand teachers, school administrators, and business people. She lives in Hilton Head, South Carolina, and is a popular public speaker. There are now five schools using her teaching methods: three in Chicago; one in Cincinnati, Ohio; and one in Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

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## MICHAEL COLLINS

**Born:** October 16, 1890

**Clonakilty, Ireland**

**Died:** August 22, 1922

**West Cork, Ireland**

*Irish revolutionary*

The Irish revolutionary leader Michael Collins was a founder of the Irish Free State. Much of his work helped to secure independence from Great Britain for most of Ireland.

### *Early life and inspiration*

Michael Collins was born near Clonakilty, County Cork, Ireland, on October 16, 1890, to a successful farmer, Michael John Collins, and Mary Anne O'Brien. When the couple married, she was twenty-three years old and he was sixty. The couple would have eight children, with Michael being the youngest.

Raised in a beautiful but remote part of southwest Ireland, Collins was educated at local primary schools. At the Lisavair National School, Collins was inspired by his teacher, Denis Lyons, a member of a secret organization, the Irish Republican Brotherhood (IRB), whose aim was to gain Ireland's independence from Great Britain. Collins was also influenced by the stories of local men who had taken part in the 1798 Rebellion, a conflict that sparked a feud between the Irish Protestants and Catholics. From these stories Collins learned of Irish pride, rebellion, executions, and the general harsh treatment imposed on his country by the British.

In 1906 Collins went to London, England, to enter the civil service as a postal clerk. For ten years Collins lived in London, where he became active in various Irish organizations, including the Gaelic League, a society that promoted the use of the Irish language. Also during this time, Collins was influenced by the writings of Arthur Griffith (1872–1922), an Irish nationalist (a person devoted to the interest of a country) who founded the Irish political party Sinn Féin (We Ourselves). In 1909 Collins himself became a member of the IRB, and would later become the IRB treasurer for the South of England.

By this time Collins had grown into a leader. Well-built at about six feet in height, Collins was a good athlete who possessed great endurance. He was good looking, very friendly, and generally had a strong character, something that would win him both friends and enemies.

### *Revolution*

Collins returned to Ireland in 1916 to take part in the Easter Rising, a rebellion against British rule. After the rebellion was crushed, Collins was interned (held captive) in North Wales along with most of the other rebels from the IRB. When the internees were released in December 1916, he went to Dublin, where his sharp intelligence and dynamic energy soon secured him a leadership position in the reviving revolutionary movement.

After their victory in the general election of December 1918, the revolutionaries established an Irish Parliament (body of government), Dail Eireann, in January 1919. The Dail officially announced an Irish Republic



*Michael Collins.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

(government elected and run by the people of Ireland) and set up an executive to take over the government of the country. British attempts to crush the Republican movement were met with guerrilla warfare (using small bands of soldiers) from the Irish Republican Army (IRA).

Collins played the most important role in this struggle. As director of intelligence (information) of the IRA, he crippled the British intelligence system in Ireland and replaced it with an effective Irish network. At the same time he performed other important military functions, headed the IRB, and, as minister of finance (executive in charge of

money) in the Republican government, successfully raised and handed out large sums of money on behalf of the rebel cause. Despite constant efforts, the British were unable to capture Collins or stop his work. The “Big Fellow” became an idolized and near-legendary figure in Ireland, and he won a reputation in Britain and abroad for ruthlessness, resourcefulness, and daring.

### *Diplomacy*

After the truce of July 1921, Collins reluctantly agreed to Irish president Eamon de Valera’s (1882–1975) request to serve on the peace-making talks headed by Arthur Griffith. During the autumn negotiations in London, the British government firmly rejected any settlement that involved recognition of the republic. Instead its representatives offered Dominion status for Ireland (self-governing, but still part of the British Commonwealth) with the right of exclusion (to be left out) for loyalist Northern Ireland. Collins decided to accept these terms, in the belief that rejection meant renewal of the war and quick defeat for Ireland, and that the proposed treaty would soon lead to unity and complete freedom for his country. Using these arguments, he and Griffith persuaded their side to sign the treaty on December 6, 1921, and Dail Eireann to approve it on January 7, 1922.

De Valera and many Republicans refused to accept the agreement, however, believing that it meant a betrayal of the republic and would mean continued domination by Britain. As the British evacuated southern Ireland, Collins and Griffith did their best to maintain order and enforce the treaty signed with the British. They found their efforts frustrated by the opposition of an armed Republican minor-

ity, however. Collins sought desperately to satisfy the forces that opposed the treaty without abandoning the treaty altogether, but he found it impossible to make a workable compromise.

In late June 1922, after the population had supported the settlement in an election, Collins agreed to use force against the opposition. This action sparked a civil war, a bitter conflict in which the forces of the infant Irish Free State eventually overcame the extreme Republicans in May 1923. Collins did not live to see the end of the war, though. He was killed in an ambush in West Cork on August 22, 1922, just ten days after the death of Arthur Griffith.

Much of Collins's success as a revolutionary leader was due mainly to his realism (being practical) and extraordinary efficiency. He also possessed an amazing vision and humanity in his character, however, which appealed to friend and foe alike. The treaty that cost him his life did not end the argument, as he had hoped, but it did make possible the peaceful gaining of full political freedom for most of Ireland.

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## CONFUCIUS

**Born:** c. 551 B.C.E.

**Tuo, China**

**Died:** c. 479 B.C.E.

**Qufu, China**

*Chinese teacher and philosopher*

**T**he Chinese teacher and philosopher Confucius was the founder of the school of philosophy known as the Ju or Confucianism, which is still very influential in China.

### Information on his life

Confucius is the Latinized name of K'ung Fu-tzu (Great Master K'ung). His original name was K'ung Ch'iu; he is also known as K'ung Chung-ni. The most detailed traditional account of Confucius's life is contained in the *Records of the Historian* (Shih chi) by Ssu-ma Ch'ien, who lived from 145 B.C.E. to 86 B.C.E. Many modern scholars have dismissed this biography as only legend. Nevertheless, from this manuscript one can reconstruct a satisfactory outline of the philosopher's life and influence.

According to the *Records of the Historian*, Confucius was a descendant of a branch of the royal house of Shang, the dynasty (a family of rulers) that ruled China prior to the Chou, and a dynasty which ruled China from around 1122 B.C.E. to 221 B.C.E. His family, the K'ung, moved to the small state of Lu, located in the modern province of Shantung in northeastern China.

It was believed that Confucius's father divorced his first wife at an advanced age, because she had borne him only daughters



Confucius.

and one disfigured son. He then married a fifteen-year-old girl from the Yen clan, who gave birth to Confucius. Ssu-ma Ch'ien refers to the relationship as a "wild union," which very possibly indicates that Confucius was an illegitimate child, or a child born out of wedlock.

In the *Analects*, Confucius's book of teachings, he writes that during his youth he was poor and was forced to acquire many different skills. It is clear that even though the fortunes of his family had declined, he was no commoner. Confucius unquestionably belonged to the aristocratic (ruling) class known as the shih. In the time of Confucius most shih served as court officials, scholars, and teachers. Confucius's first occupation

appears to have been as keeper of the Lu granary. Later he worked as supervisor of the fields. Both were low positions but consistent with his shih status.

### *Career as a teacher*

It is not known exactly when Confucius began his teaching career, but it does not appear to have been much before the age of thirty. In 518 B.C.E. he is said to have met the famous teacher Lao Tzu (sixth century B.C.E.), who reportedly bluntly criticized Confucius for his stuffiness and arrogance.

Confucius eventually returned to Lu around 515 B.C.E. For several years after his return he does not appear to have accepted a governmental position. Instead it appears he spent most of his time studying and teaching, gathering a large number of students around him. Although one can only guess about the school's exact course work, it undoubtedly included instruction in ritual, music, history, and poetry.

Around 498 B.C.E., Confucius decided to leave his home in Lu and embark on a long journey throughout eastern China. He was accompanied by several of his disciples (followers). They wandered throughout the eastern states of Wei, Sung, and Ch'en and at various times had their lives threatened. Confucius was almost assassinated (killed) in Sung. On another occasion he was mistaken for the adventurer Yang Hu and was arrested and held until his true identity became known.

Confucius was received with great respect by the rulers of the states he visited, and he even seems to have received occasional payments. He spent much of his time

developing his ideas on the art of government, as well as continuing his teaching. He acquired a large following, and the solidification of the Confucian school probably occurred during these years. Not all of his disciples followed him on his travels. Several of them actually returned to Lu and assumed positions with the Chi clan. It may have been through their influence that in 484 B.C.E. Confucius was invited back to Lu.

### **Final years**

Confucius was warmly received in Lu, but there is no indication that he was given a responsible position. Little is known about his last years, although this would have been a logical time for him to work on the many texts and documents he supposedly gathered on his journey. Much of his time was devoted to teaching, and he seems to have remained more or less distant from political affairs.

This was an unhappy period for Confucius. His only son died about this time; his favorite disciple, Yen Hui, died the very year of his return to Lu; and in 480 B.C.E. another disciple, Tzu-lu, was killed in battle. Confucius felt all of these losses deeply, and his sadness and frustration must have been intensified by the realization that his political ideas had found no support among the rulers of his own state. Confucius died in 479 B.C.E. His disciples conducted his funeral and observed a mourning period for him.

### **Confucius's teachings**

Although we cannot be certain that Confucius wrote any of the works he is credited with, it is still possible to know something about the general nature of his philosophy. Shortly after his death his disciples

compiled a work known as the *Lun yü*, commonly translated as the *Analects* but more accurately rendered as the *Edited Conversations*. This work consists of conversations between Confucius, his students, and an occasional ruler.

The primary emphasis of the *Lun yü* is on political philosophy. Confucius taught that the primary task of the ruler was to achieve the welfare (well-being) and happiness of the people of his state. To accomplish this aim, the ruler first had to set a moral (good character) example by his own conduct. This example would in turn influence the people's behavior.

Confucius is the first Chinese thinker to introduce concepts that became fundamental not only to Confucian philosophy but to Chinese philosophy in general. The most important of these are jen (benevolence), yi (propriety, or being proper), and li (ritual, or ceremony). Confucius believed that the chün-tzu, or "gentleman," must set the moral example for others in society to follow. In the *Lun yü* jen, what has been translated as humaneness or benevolence (being kind) is a quality a chün-tzu should develop and attempt to encourage in others. Li is considered the rules and ritual that are observed in religious and nonreligious ceremonies and, as applied to the chün-tzu, composed rules of behavior. Yi represents what is right and proper in a given situation. The chün-tzu, by observing the ritual and because of his good nature, always knows what is right.

Confucius was basically a humanist and one of the greatest teachers in Chinese history. His influence on his immediate disciples was deep. His students continued to explain his theories until, in the first Han dynasty



(206 B.C.E.–8 C.E.), the theories became the basis of the state ideology, the body of ideas reflecting the social needs of a culture.

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## SEAN CONNERY

**Born:** August 25, 1930

**Edinburgh, Scotland**

*Scottish actor*

From humble beginnings as a school dropout, Sean Connery became a major movie star at the age of thirty-two, when he was cast as the sophisticated secret agent James Bond. Connery went on to distinguish himself in a number of major motion pictures, including his Oscar-winning performance in *The Untouchables*. With more than sixty movies to his credit, Connery has become one of the world's most prominent movie stars.

### ***A Depression-era childhood***

Thomas Sean Connery, born on August 25, 1930, began his life in the humblest of surroundings. He was the eldest of two sons born in Edinburgh, Scotland, to Joseph and Euphamia Connery. His family was so poor that young Thomas had to sleep in the bottom drawer of his parents' dresser. He started working to help support the family at age nine, delivering milk and assisting a butcher. He left school at age thirteen. Connery joined the British Royal Navy in 1946, but received a medical discharge three years later.

In 1953 Connery won third place in the Mr. Universe competition (a contest measuring strength). He also heard about auditions for the musical *South Pacific*. He decided he wanted to try out, took a course in dancing and singing, and was cast for a role in the chorus.

### ***Becoming an actor***

At the time Connery was undecided between becoming an actor and becoming a professional soccer player. He eventually decided to take the advice of actor Robert Henderson, who encouraged him to pursue acting. After *South Pacific*, Connery got his first television role in *Requiem for a Heavyweight*. He received critical acclaim for this role, and went on to make a series of B (inexpensively made) movies from 1955 to 1962. During this time Connery met Terence Young, who was to be the director of the James Bond films.

### ***"Bond, James Bond"***

Connery was still doing B movies when he was asked to interview for *Dr. No*, the first

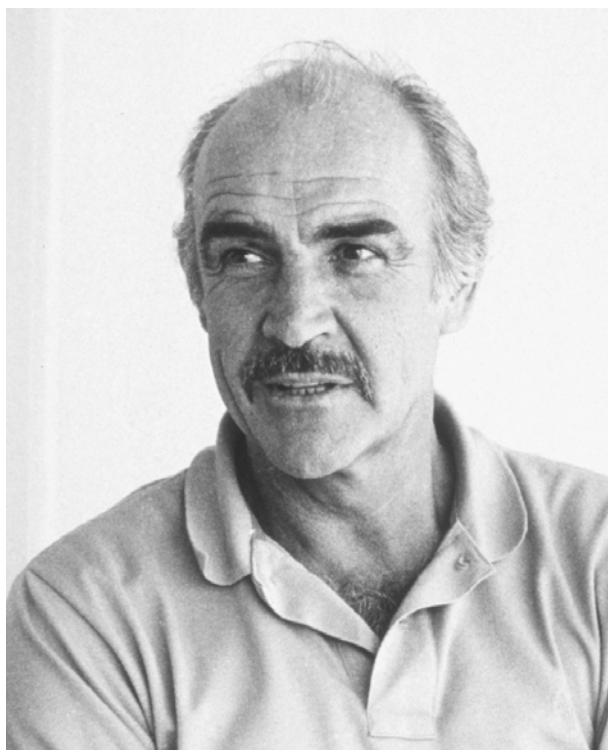
James Bond film. Producer Harry Saltzman felt that he had the masculinity the part required because he punctuated his words with physical movement. Connery was signed without a screen test (a short film scene to audition actors for a movie role). *Dr. No* was an instant success, propelling the little-known Connery into fame virtually overnight. The serious-minded and very private Connery did not like this sudden attention.

In 1962 Connery married actress Diane Cilento. The couple divorced in 1974 and their only son, Jason, is now a movie actor. Connery married Micheline Roquebrune in 1975.

Between 1962 and 1967 Connery made five James Bond movies (*Dr. No*, *From Russia with Love*, *Goldfinger*, *Thunderball*, and *You Only Live Twice*). He became tired of the constant publicity and invasion of privacy that came with being a movie star. He also argued with Albert Broccoli, the producer of the Bond movies. Connery wanted to slow the pace of the series and complete a feature every eighteen months instead of each year. But the nation was Bond-crazy and the films were a gold mine. Connery agreed to star in *Diamonds Are Forever* in 1971, demanding a salary of \$1.25 million, plus a percentage. At that time it was an unprecedented sum of money for such a role. After completing the film, Connery said “never again” to Bond roles and donated all of his salary to the Scottish International Education Trust, an organization he had founded to assist young Scots in obtaining an education.

### ***Life after Bond***

After the Bond films Connery focused on movie roles he found interesting. He would also do films if he felt his help was needed.



*Sean Connery.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

With a few exceptions, however, most of the films Connery did in the decade following *Diamonds Are Forever* were not noteworthy.

In the early 1980s Connery was asked to reprise the James Bond role he had made famous, starring in *Never Say Never Again*. Connery again drew rave reviews as an aging Bond trying to get back in shape for a daring mission.

### ***Roles increased with age***

After *Never Say Never Again* Connery began acting in more films. He went on to win an Academy Award in 1988 for his sup-

porting role of Malone in *The Untouchables*. Connery continues to prove his versatility and maturity as an actor. More recent films include *The Name of the Rose* (1986), *Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade* (1989), *The Hunt for Red October* (1990), *Rising Sun* (1993), *Just Cause* (1995), *First Knight* (1995), *The Rock* (1996), and *Finding Forrester* (2000).

In 1998 Connery received the Fellowship Award, the British Academy of Film and Television Arts highest honor. In 1999 U.S. president Bill Clinton honored Connery at the Kennedy Center Honors program. The program recognizes the nation's outstanding performers from the world of the arts. On July 5, 2000, Queen Elizabeth II (1926–) knighted Connery. On January 11–12, 2001, Connery won the Lifetime Achievement Award from the Palm Springs International Film Festival.

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## JOSEPH CONRAD

**Born:** December 3, 1857  
Berdyczew, Poland

**Died:** August 3, 1924

**Bishopsbourne, England**

*Polish-born English writer and novelist*

Polish-born English novelist Joseph Conrad is one of the great modern writers of England. His novels reflect his concerns with the complex individual, and how sympathy and imagination can blur clear judgment—which is essential to life. The character development in Conrad's books is engaging and powerful.

#### **Childhood in Poland and Russia**

Józef Teodor Konrad Nalecz Korzeniowski (Joseph Conrad) was born to Joseph Theodore Appollonius Korzeniowski and Evelina Korzeniowski on December 3, 1857, in Berdyczew, Poland. His father was a writer and a translator of the works of William Shakespeare (1564–1616). He was also a member of a movement seeking Polish independence from Russia. In 1862 the family was forced to move to Russia because of his father's political activities. Conrad's mother died three years later in 1865. It was not until 1867 that Conrad and his father were allowed to return to Poland.

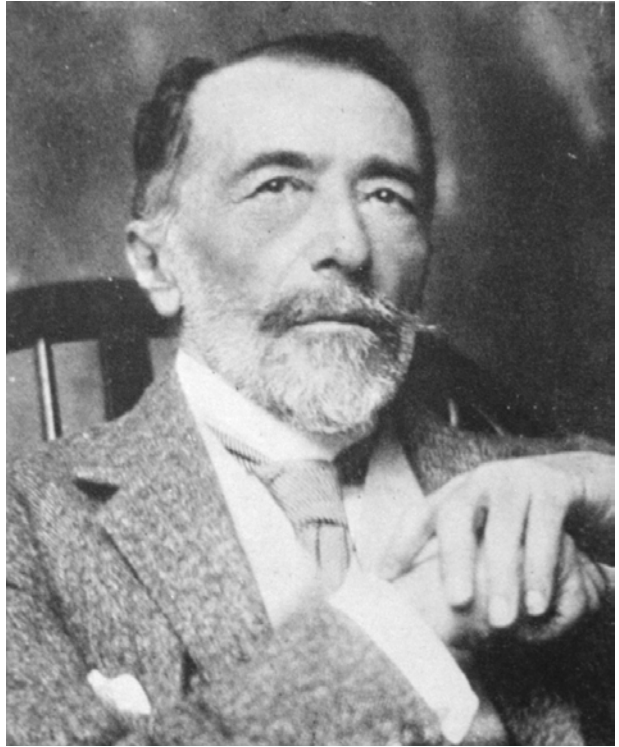
In 1868 Conrad attended high school in the Austrian province of Galicia for one year. The following year he and his father moved to Cracow, Poland, where his father died in 1869. From the time spent with his father, Conrad became a lover of literature, especially tales of the sea. After his father's death, his uncle, Thaddus Bobrowski, took Conrad in and raised him.

### *Merchant marine service and marriage*

As a teenager the future novelist began dreaming of going to sea. In 1873, while on vacation in western Europe, Conrad saw the sea for the first time. In the autumn of 1874 Conrad went to Marseilles, France, where he entered the French marine service. For the next twenty years Conrad led a successful career as a ship's officer. In 1877 he probably took part in the illegal shipment of arms from France to Spain in support of the pretender to the Spanish throne, Don Carlos (1788–1855). At about this time Conrad seems to have fallen in love with a girl who was also a supporter of Carlos. The affair ended in a duel with an American named J. M. K. Blunt. This was the first time Conrad thought of taking his own life.

In June 1878 Conrad went to England for the first time. He worked as a seaman on English ships, and in 1880 he began his career as an officer in the British merchant service, rising from third mate to master. His voyages took him to distant and exotic places such as Australia, India, Singapore, Java, and Borneo, which would provide the background for much of his fiction. In 1886 he became a British citizen. He received his first command in 1888. In 1890 he traveled to the Belgian Congo, Zaire, and Africa, which inspired his great short novel *The Heart of Darkness*.

In the early 1890s Conrad had begun to think about writing fiction based on his experiences in the East. In 1893 he discussed his work in progress, the novel *Almayer's Folly*, with a passenger, the novelist John Galsworthy (1867–1933). A year later he retired from the merchant marines and completed *Almayer's Folly*, which was published in 1895.



Joseph Conrad.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

It received favorable reviews and Conrad began a new career as a writer.

In 1896 he married Jessie George, an Englishwoman. Two years later, just after the birth of Borys, the first of their two sons, they settled in Kent in the south of England, where Conrad lived for the rest of his life. John Galsworthy was the first of a number of English and American writers who befriended Conrad. Others were Henry James (1843–1916), Arnold Bennett (1867–1931), Rudyard Kipling (1865–1936), Stephen Crane (1871–1900), and Ford Madox Hueffer Ford (1873–1939), with whom Conrad collaborated on two novels.

### **Early novels, political novels**

From 1896 through 1904 Conrad wrote novels about places he visited as a merchant marine and he explored themes such as the uncertainties of human sympathy. His early novels included *An Outcast of the Islands* (1896), *The Nigger of the "Narcissus"* (1897), *The Heart of Darkness* (1899), and *Lord Jim* (1900).

The next three novels reflected Conrad's political side. The theme of *Nostromo* (1904) was the relationship between man's deepest needs (his psychology) and his public actions and decisions. The description of London, England, in *The Secret Agent* (1907) was similar to Charles Dickens's works. It portrayed a city of mean streets and shabby lives. In *Under Western Eyes* (1911) Conrad examined the Russian temperament.

Conrad's next novel, *Chance* (1914), was a study of solitude and sympathy. Because of its financial success and the efforts of his American publisher, he was able to live without worrying about money for the rest of his life. *Victory* (1915), his last important novel, further examined the theme of solitude and sympathy.

### **Last novels and death**

Although Conrad's last novels, *The Shadow Line* (1917) and *The Rover* (1923), were written as a farewell, he received many honors. In 1923 he visited the United States to great fanfare. The year after, he declined an offer of knighthood in England.

On August 3, 1924, Conrad died of a heart attack and was buried at Canterbury, England. His gravestone bears these lines from Edmund Spenser (1552–1599): "Sleep after toyle, port after stormie seas,/ Ease after warre, death after life, does greatly please."

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## NICOLAUS COPERNICUS

**Born:** February 19, 1473

**Torun, Poland**

**Died:** May 24, 1543

**Frauenberg, East Prussia (now Frombork, Poland)**

*Polish astronomer*

**T**he Polish astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus was the founder of the heliocentric ordering of the planets, which at the time was a revolutionary idea that stated the Earth and other planets revolve around the Sun.

### **Early life**

Nicolaus Copernicus was born on February 19, 1473, in Torun, Poland, about 100 miles south of Danzig. He belonged to a family of merchants. His uncle, the bishop and ruler of Ermland, was the person to whom Copernicus owed his education, career, and security.

Copernicus studied at the University of Cracow from 1491 to 1494. While he did not

attend any classes in astronomy, it was during his student years there that Copernicus began to collect books on mathematics and astronomy (the study of the universe). Copernicus returned to Torun in 1494. In 1496, through the efforts of his uncle, he became a canon (priest) at Frauenburg, remaining in that office for the remainder of his life. Copernicus then set out for Bologna, Italy, to study canon law. In Bologna Copernicus came under the influence of Domenico Maria de Novara, an astronomer. There Copernicus also recorded some planetary positions, and he did the same in Rome, where he spent the year of 1500.

Upon returning to Ermland in 1506, Copernicus stayed in his uncle's castle at Heilsberg as his personal physician (doctor) and secretary. During that time he translated from Greek into Latin the eighty-five poems of Theophylactus Simacotta, the seventh-century poet. The work, printed in Cracow in 1509, demonstrated Copernicus's interest in the arts.

### ***The heliocentric system***

At this time Copernicus was thinking about problems of astronomy, and the heliocentric system in particular. The system is outlined in a short manuscript known as the *Commentariolus*, or small commentary, which he completed about 1512. In it there was a list of seven axioms (truths), all of which stated a feature specific to the heliocentric system. The third stated in particular: "All the spheres revolve about the sun as their mid-point, and therefore the sun is the center of the universe."

The *Commentariolus* produced no reaction, either in print or in letters, but Copernicus's fame began to spread. Two years later



*Nicolaus Copernicus.*  
*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

he turned down an invitation to be present as an astronomer at the Lateran Council, which had the reform (improvement) of the calendar as one of its aims. His secretiveness only seemed to further his reputation. In 1522 the secretary to the King of Poland asked Copernicus to pass an opinion on *De motu octavae sphaerae* (*On the Motion of the Eighth Sphere*), just published by Johann Werner, a mathematician. This time he granted the request in the form of a letter in which he took a rather low opinion of Werner's work. More important was the closing of the letter, in which Copernicus stated

that he intended to present his own opinion about the motion of the stars.

Copernicus could pursue his study only in his spare time. As a canon he was involved in various affairs, including legal and medical, but especially administrative and financial matters. For all his failure to publish anything in astronomy, his manuscript studies presented in *Commentariolus* continued to circulate, and more and more was rumored about his theory.

### Criticisms

Not all the comments were flattering, though. German religious reformer Martin Luther (1483–1546) said Copernicus was “the fool who will turn the whole science of astronomy upside down.” In 1531 a local schoolmaster produced an unflattering play about him in Elbing, Prussia. In Rome things went better, for the time being at least. In 1533 John Widmanstad, a secretary to the pope, lectured on Copernicus’s theory before Pope Clement VII (1536–1605) and several cardinals (religious leaders ranking just below the pope). Widmanstad’s hand was behind the letter that Cardinal Schönberg sent from Rome to Copernicus in 1536 urging him to publish his thoughts, or to share them with him at least.

In 1539 Georg Joachim (Rheticus), a young scholar from Wittenberg, arrived in Frauenburg and printed an account, known as the *Narratio prima*, of Copernicus’s book, which was nearing completion. Rheticus was also instrumental in securing the printing of Copernicus’s book in Nuremberg, Germany, although the final supervision remained in the care of Andrew Osiander, a Lutheran clergyman (religious leader). He might have been

the one who gave the work its title, *De revolutionibus orbium coelestium*, which is not found in the manuscript. But Osiander certainly had written the anonymous preface (the introduction to the book written by an unknown author), in which Copernicus’s ideas were claimed to be meant by their author as mere hypotheses (theories) that had nothing to do with the physical reality.

Copernicus received the printed copy of his work in six books, only a few hours before his death on May 24, 1543. Although there were many gaps in Copernicus’s theories, he could have done a better job as an observer. He added only twenty-seven observations to the data he took over from Ptolemy (c. 100–c. 165 C.E.), a second century astronomer, and from more recent astronomical tables. The invention of the telescope was still more than half a century away. To explain the absence of stellar parallax (a change in the direction) due to the orbital motion of the earth, Copernicus could only say that the stars were immensely far away. Here, the observational evidence would not come for another three hundred years. Also, while Ptolemy actually used only forty epicycles (describes the orbit of planets), their total number in Copernicus’s system was eighty-four, hardly a convincing proof of its greater simplicity.

Still, the undeniable strength of Copernicus’s work lay in its appeal to simplicity. The rotation of the earth made the daily revolution of thousands of stars unnecessary. The orbital motion of the earth fit perfectly into the sequence set by the periods of other planets with its period of 365 days. Most importantly, the heliocentric ordering of planets eliminated the need to think of the retrograde motion (direction opposite of the earth’s motion) of the planets as a physical reality. In

the tenth chapter of the first book Copernicus made the straightforward statement: "In the center rests the sun. For who would place this lamp of a very beautiful temple in another or better place than this wherefrom it can illuminate everything at the same time."

The thousand copies of the first edition of the book did not sell out, and the work was reprinted only three times prior to the twentieth century. No "great book" of Western intellectual history circulated less widely and was read by fewer people than Copernicus's *Revolutions*. Still, it not only instructed man about the revolution of the planets but also brought about a revolution in human thought by serving as the building block of modern astronomy.

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## AARON COPLAND

**Born:** November 14, 1900

Brooklyn, New York

**Died:** December 2, 1990

New York, New York

*American composer*

Aaron Copland was one of the most important figures in American music during the second quarter of the twentieth century, both as a composer (a writer of music) and as a spokesman who was concerned about making Americans aware of the importance of music. He won the Pulitzer Prize for music in 1945.

### Early life and education

Aaron Copland was born on November 14, 1900, in Brooklyn, New York, the youngest of five children born to Harris Morris Copland and Sarah Mittenthal Copland. The family lived above a department store, which they owned. One of Copland's sisters showed him how to play piano when he was eleven years old, and soon afterward he began taking lessons from a teacher in the neighborhood. At age fifteen he decided he wanted to be a composer. While attending Boys' High School he began to study music theory beginning in 1917.

Copland continued his music lessons after graduating from high school, and in 1921 he went to France to study at the American Conservatory in Fontainebleau, where his main teacher was the French composer Nadia Boulanger (1887–1979). During his early studies, Copland had been attracted to the music of Scriabin (1872–1915), Debussy (1862–1918), and Ravel (1875–1937). The years in Paris provided him an opportunity to hear and absorb all the most recent trends in European music, including the works of Stravinsky (1882–1971), Bartók (1881–1945), and Schoenberg (1847–1951).





Aaron Copland.

### Composing career

After Copland completed his studies in 1924, he returned to America and composed the *Symphony for Organ and Orchestra*, his first major work, which Boulanger played in New York City in 1925. *Music for the Theater* (1925) and a Piano Concerto (1926) explored the possibilities of combining jazz and symphony music. Serge Koussevitzky (1874–1951), conductor of the Boston Symphony Orchestra, became interested in what he heard from the young composer, and he helped gain a wider audience for Copland's—and much of America's—music.

In the late 1920s Copland turned to an increasingly experimental style, featuring

irregular rhythms and often jarring sounds. His works were entirely personal; there are no outside influences that can be identified in the *Piano Variations* (1930), *Short Symphony* (1933), and *Statements*. The basic features of these works remained in one way or another central to his musical style in the following years.

The 1920s and 1930s were a period of deep concern about the limited audience for new (and especially American) music, and Copland was active in many organizations devoted to performance and sponsorship. These included the League of Composers, the Copland-Sessions concerts, and the American Composers' Alliance. His organizational abilities earned him the title of "American music's natural president" from his fellow composer Virgil Thomson (1896–1989).

### Promoter of "American" music

Beginning in the mid-1930s through 1950, Copland made a serious effort to widen the audience for American music and took steps to change his style when writing pieces requested for different occasions. He composed music for theater, ballet, and films, as well as for concert situations. In his ballets—*Billy the Kid* (1938), *Rodeo* (1942), and *Appalachian Spring* (1944; Pulitzer Prize, 1945)—he made use of folk melodies and relaxed his previous style to arrive at a sound more broadly recognized as "American." Other well-known works of this period are *El Salón México* (1935) and *A Lincoln Portrait* (1942), while the Piano Sonata (1943) and the Third Symphony (1946) continue the development of his concert music. Among his famous film scores are those for *Of Mice and Men* (1939), *Our Town*

(1940), *The Red Pony* (1948), and *The Heiress* (1949).

Copland's concern for establishing a tradition of music in American life increased when he became a teacher at The New School for Social Research at Harvard University, and as head of the composition department at the Berkshire Music Center in Tanglewood, Massachusetts, a school founded by Koussevitzky. His Norton Lectures at Harvard (1951–52) were published as *Music and Imagination* (1952). Earlier books are *What to Listen for in Music* (1939) and *Our New Music* (1941).

Beginning with the *Quartet for Piano and Strings* (1950), Copland made use of the methods developed by Austrian American composer Arnold Schoenberg, who developed a tonal system not based on any key. This confused many listeners. Copland's most important works of these years include the *Piano Fantasy* (1957), *Nonet for Strings* (1960), *Connotations* (1962), and *Inscape* (1967). *The Tender Land* (1954) represents an extension of the style of ballet to the opera stage.

### Later years

Copland spent the final years of his life living primarily in the New York City area. He engaged in many cultural missions, especially to South America. Although he had been out of the major spotlight for almost twenty years, he remained semiactive in the music world up until his death, conducting his last symphony in 1983.

Aaron Copland died in New York City on December 2, 1990. He was remembered as a man who encouraged young composers to find their own voice, no matter the style, just as he had done for sixty years.

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## FRANCIS FORD COPPOLA

**Born:** April 7, 1939

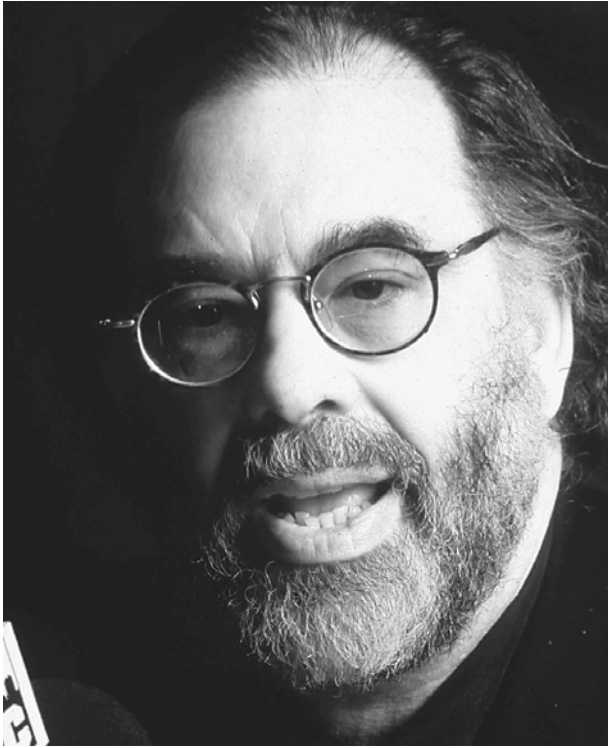
**Detroit, Michigan**

*American director and writer*

Schooled in low-budget filmmaking, Francis Ford Coppola has gone on to direct some of the most financially successful and critically praised movies in U.S. cinematic history, including *The Godfather* and *Apocalypse Now*.

### Raised in show-business family

Francis Ford Coppola was born in Detroit, Michigan, on April 7, 1939. His father, Carmine, was a musician who played with Arturo Toscanini's NBC Symphony Orchestra. His mother, Italia, was an actress who at one time had appeared in films. Coppola's younger sister, Talia, would later follow her mother's footsteps into the world of film acting, changing her name to Talia Shire and starring in the film *Rocky*, with Sylvester Stal-



Francis Ford Coppola.

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lone (1946–). A few years after his birth, Coppola and his family moved to the suburbs of New York City, where he would spend most of his childhood.

All of the Coppola children were driven to succeed in show business and the arts. Coppola's father, who had achieved success as a musician for hire but longed to compose scores (write music) of his own, led by example. Francis seemed the least likely to fulfill his father's dreams, however. He was an awkward child who did poorly at school. At age nine he was stricken with polio, a crippling disease that usually occurs in children. The illness forced him into bed for a year, a period during which

he played with puppets, watched television, and became lost in an inner fantasy world. After his recovery he began to make movies with an eight-millimeter camera and a tape recorder. Francis was fascinated by movies as a child. Some of his favorites were *Dracula*, *The Thief of Baghdad*, and Walt Disney cartoons.

### *Student of film*

While a student at Great Neck High School on Long Island, Coppola began to study filmmaking more formally. He soon became enchanted with the work of director Sergei Eisenstein (1898–1948). Coppola also trained in music and theater to round out his education. In 1956 he enrolled at Hofstra College in Hempstead, New York, on a drama scholarship. Here he acted in and directed student productions, and he founded his own cinema (movie) workshop. So determined was Coppola to direct his own pictures that he once sold his car to pay for a 16-millimeter camera.

After graduating from Hofstra, Coppola moved to the West Coast to attend film school at the University of California in Los Angeles, California. But he was impatient to escape the classroom and start making his own films. He signed on to direct an adult movie, which caught the attention of low-budget director Roger Corman. Corman hired Coppola to work on his movies as a jack-of-all-trades (a person who can do many different jobs). Coppola's strong work ethic prompted Corman to allow him to direct his own picture. The result was *Dementia 13* (1963), a gory horror movie Coppola had written in three days and shot for forty thousand dollars. That year Coppola married Eleanor Neil, his set decorator on the picture.

### ***Establishes his reputation***

Warner Brothers selected the promising young filmmaker to direct their big-budget musical *Finian's Rainbow*. But the subject matter took Coppola away from his strengths and the film was panned (not favorably reviewed) by critics. *The Rain People* (1969) represented Coppola's attempt to return to "personal," not to mention low-budget, moviemaking. A travelogue about a housewife on the run, the movie was made up as the crew went along, evidence of Coppola's flair for the experimental.

Coppola might have remained in an avant-garde (inventive and experimental) rut were it not for his next project. As cowriter of the mega-hit *Patton*, Coppola earned an Academy Award and quickly restored his reputation. Paramount Pictures next asked him to direct its screen adaptation of Mario Puzo's best-selling novel, *The Godfather*. It would prove to be Coppola's greatest triumph.

### ***Glory gained from The Godfather***

Filming *The Godfather* posed many challenges. Coppola fought hard to control the casting decisions. He also resisted studio attempts to cut his budget and to update the setting. Italian American groups protested the depiction of organized crime in the original screenplay. Even Coppola's own crew at times lost faith in his ability to control the enormous project. Nevertheless, he steered the movie to completion.

*The Godfather* tells the sweeping story of the Corleone crime family, focusing on the rise of young Michael Corleone to control of the family's empire. Propelling the drama forward are powerful performances by Marlon

Brando (1924–) and newcomer Al Pacino (1940–). After its release in 1972, critics were floored by the film's depiction of America's criminal underworld. The film became a sensational hit with moviegoers as well, and *The Godfather* swept the Academy Awards that year. Coppola was a winner in the Best Director and Best Screenplay categories.

Now a wealthy man thanks to the success of *The Godfather*, Coppola could at last pick and choose his own projects. In 1974 he made *The Conversation*, an edgy drama about secret surveillance (observation). Coppola returned to the world of organized crime with 1974's *The Godfather Part II*, which won him a second Academy Award statuette as Best Director of 1974.

### ***Apocalypse and aftermath***

Coppola's next project was *Apocalypse Now*, a film about the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war fought between United States-aided South Vietnam against the Communist forces of North Vietnam). But the expensive production was slowed by bad weather, budget overruns, and the bizarre behavior of its star, Marlon Brando. When it finally reached the screen in 1979, many critics hailed the film as a masterpiece. It was nominated for several Academy Awards and did well at the box office.

Coppola then moved into the world of independent films, which he released through his own Zoetrope Studio. These pictures, including *Rumble Fish* (1983) and *The Cotton Club* (1984), received mixed reviews and had many wondering if Coppola was washed up. He did manage to create a hit with the offbeat *Peggy Sue Got Married* (1985), a film about a woman who travels

back in time to her high school days. The project seemed like a work-for-hire, however. Closer to Coppola's heart was *Tucker: The Man and His Dream*, a 1988 picture about an automaker who could have been a stand-in for the director himself.

### Later works

In 1990 Coppola completed *The Godfather Part III*. While not as praised as the previous two installments, it nevertheless was a box office success and won back the confidence of the major studios. His *Bram Stoker's Dracula* (1992) received mixed critical response, but helped solidify his comeback.

Out of debt and at ease working for the major studios, Coppola seems content with his cinematic legacy. He expanded his interests into publishing in 1997 with *Zoetrope Short Stories*, a magazine dedicated to literary, not Hollywood, material.

In 1998 Coppola helped launch the first Classically Independent Film Festival in San Francisco, California. Outside the film industry Coppola is the owner of a California winery that produces wine under the Niebaum-Coppola label. In 2001 Coppola rereleased *Apocalypse Now*, with an additional forty-nine minutes of footage not included in the original movie. Just like the original, the rerelease was a hit with both critics and the public alike.

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## BILL COSBY

**Born:** July 12, 1937

**Germantown, Pennsylvania**

*African American comedian and actor*

An entertainer for many decades, Bill Cosby has starred in live performances and films, recorded albums, written books, and created television shows. His long-running, hugely popular *The Cosby Show* was in the top of the television ratings from its debut in 1984 through 1992.

### Early years

William Henry Cosby Jr. was born in Germantown, Pennsylvania, on July 12, 1937, to Anna and William Cosby. One of Cosby's four brothers died at age six. Cosby's father joined the navy and was away from home for months at a time. Cosby, as the oldest son, helped his mother pay the bills by doing odd jobs such as delivering groceries and shining shoes.

Bill was regarded as a comedian even as a child. He particularly enjoyed the comedy of Sid Caesar (1922–). In high school he was captain of the track and football teams, and played basketball and baseball. He tried to

keep up with his schoolwork, but he dropped out of high school to join the navy in the early 1950s. Cosby's mother had always stressed the importance of education to her children. She would often read books to them, including Mark Twain (1835–1910) novels and the Bible. Eventually Bill earned his high school diploma through correspondence school and was accepted at Temple University in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on an athletic scholarship.

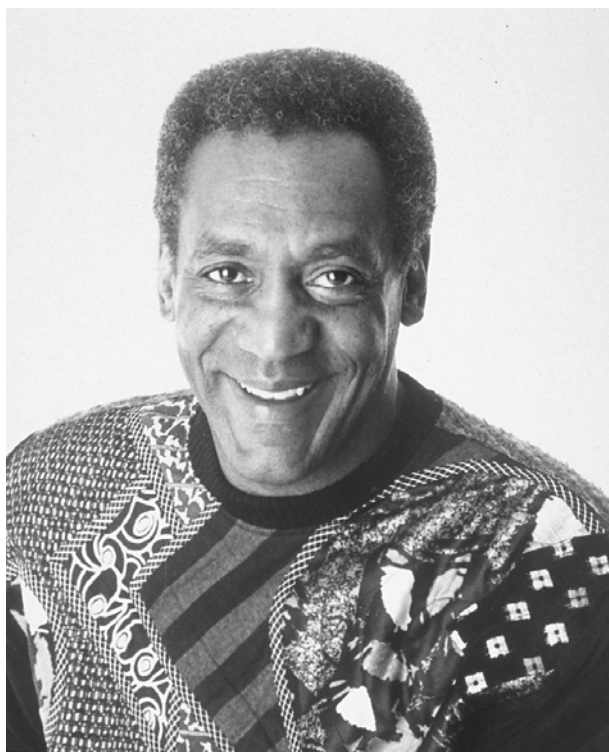
### **Stand-up comedy**

While at Temple Cosby took a job as a bartender in a neighborhood café. The bar had hired a comedian who often did not show up for his act. Cosby filled in, entertaining the crowd with jokes and humorous stories. His reputation as a funny bartender spread throughout the city. Cosby soon got offers to do stand-up comedy in other clubs.

Cosby's humor always focuses on stories about his family, everyday occurrences, boyhood experiences, and commonly held beliefs. He does not do racial humor. He told *Newsweek*, "I'm trying to reach all the people." Cosby was soon making people laugh in large, well-known nightspots all over the country. He reached a point where his career as a comedian showed more promise than his prospects as a student, so he left Temple in 1962.

### **Early albums**

Cosby's first album was *Bill Cosby Is a Very Funny Fellow ... Right!* (1963). He won a Grammy Award for it. His second album, *I Started Out As a Child*, released in 1964, received another Grammy honor as Best Comedy Album of the Year. Each of Cosby's albums earned more than \$1 million in sales. His popularity continued and he won con-



*Bill Cosby.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

secutive Best Comedy Album awards every year from 1964 to 1969.

### **Television**

American comedian Allan Sherman (1924–1973) was one of Cosby's biggest fans, as well as his producer. When Sherman filled in for Johnny Carson (1925–) as guest host of *The Tonight Show* in 1963, he asked Cosby to be his guest. *The Tonight Show* producers were skeptical about having an African American comic on the show, but Sherman insisted and Cosby was a big hit. Sheldon Leonard, producer of mid-1960s hits including *The Danny Thomas Show*, *The Dick Van Dyke Show*, and

*The Andy Griffith Show*, saw *The Tonight Show* the night Cosby was on. He signed Cosby to play opposite Robert Culp on a new dramatic series. *I Spy* was an immediate success. It was also the first prime-time television program to star an African American. Cosby won the Emmy Award for Best Actor in a Dramatic Series in 1967, 1968, and 1969.

Cosby's second prime-time series, *The Bill Cosby Show*, began in 1969, just one year after *I Spy* went off the air. It was number one in its first season. However, ratings steadily dropped over the next two years, and the show was canceled in the spring of 1971.

### **Cartoons**

Cosby produced *Fat Albert and the Cosby Kids* as a special in 1971. The show debuted in 1972 as a regular series on Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS). The Saturday afternoon cartoon featured a group of kids living and learning together in an urban (city) area much like the poor section of Philadelphia where Cosby grew up. So that his audience would learn good behavior and solid values, Cosby employed a panel of educators to act as advisers. He also appeared in each episode to discuss its message. The program won a variety of awards, and audience estimates numbered about six million.

### **Left prime-time television**

Cosby made two more attempts at prime time with *The New Bill Cosby Show* and *Cos* in 1972 and 1976, respectively. Both were unsuccessful variety shows that included dancing, skits, and monologue (a comedic or dramatic act read by one person) sessions.

During the mid-1970s Cosby did live performances and recorded comedy albums. Most

material on these albums came from Cosby's childhood experiences. Examples include plotting an escape from a bed he had been told was surrounded by thousands of poisonous snakes, having his tonsils out at age five, and having everything he ever made in shop class turn into an ashtray. Cosby also made several films, but they were generally overlooked.

### **Commitment to education**

Cosby earned his undergraduate degree from Temple University in 1971. In 1977 he completed his Ph.D. (an advanced degree beyond a master's) in education at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst. Cosby's commitment to education included regular appearances on *The Electric Company*, produced by the Children's Television Workshop, during the 1970s. He also appeared as the host of the Picturepages segment on *Captain Kangaroo* in the early 1980s.

### **More television**

By 1984 Cosby had become disappointed with what he saw on television and came up with his own idea for a sitcom (a comedy series). The networks were doubtful, as his last two attempts at prime time were failures. Cosby gave the National Broadcasting Company (NBC) a segment featuring himself as Dr. Heathcliff Huxtable discussing sex with his two teenage daughters. His idea was to have the characters be a happy, middle-class family dealing with everyday problems and incidents. Cosby would play a doctor, who was married to a lawyer. *The Cosby Show* aired in September 1984 and was an immediate success. It finished the season as the third most watched prime-time television show and was number one for the next four seasons. The show was

sold directly to local television stations in October 1988. *Cosby*, which debuted in the fall of 1996, was the most recent Cosby television show. It was cancelled after four seasons.

Cosby has been his own manager and producer and has written several books, including the best-selling *Fatherhood*, published in 1986. He also has done a number of television commercials. Cosby and his wife, Camille, have been married since 1964 and have four daughters. A son, Ennis, was tragically killed in 1997 at age twenty-seven. Cosby was inducted into the Television Hall of Fame in 1992. In 1998 he was honored with a Kennedy Center Award for lifetime achievement in the performing arts.

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## JACQUES COUSTEAU

**Born:** June 11, 1910

Saint-André-de-Cubzac, France

**Died:** June 25, 1997

Paris, France

*French oceanographer, inventor, photographer, explorer, and environmentalist*

Jacques Cousteau was an undersea explorer, a photographer, an inventor of diving devices, and a writer. Most important was his work that he produced and wrote for television, which enlightened audiences around the world on the subjects of the ocean's natural treasures and the effects of pollution.

### **Early life and inspiration**

Jacques-Yves Cousteau was born June 11, 1910, in Saint-André-de-Cubzac, France, to Daniel and Elizabeth Cousteau. After their son's birth, the Cousteaus returned to Paris, France, where Daniel worked as a lawyer. Although Cousteau was a sickly child, who the doctors told not to participate in any strenuous activity, he learned to swim and soon developed a passionate love for the sea. He combined this love with an early interest in invention and built a model of a marine crane when he was eleven years old.

In school Cousteau was bored and often misbehaved. He was even expelled at one time. In 1930 Cousteau entered France's naval academy, the Ecole Navale, in Brest. He graduated three years later and then entered the French navy. In 1936 he was given a pair of underwater goggles, the kind used by divers. Cousteau was so impressed with what he saw beneath the sea that he immediately set about designing a device that would allow humans to breath underwater.

This project was put on hold during World War II (1939–45; a war in which England, the Soviet Union, and the United States clashed with Germany, Japan, and Italy). Cousteau became a gunnery (heavy guns) officer and was later awarded the prestigious Legion d'Honneur for his work with the





Jacques Cousteau.

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French resistance, a military group fighting against the occupying German army.

Even during the war Cousteau turned his attention to the world below the sea. In 1942 he designed the Aqua-Lung, an early underwater breathing device. Cousteau then helped remove mines from French seas left over from the war. One of these minesweepers (boats used to remove mines from the bottom of the ocean) would become Cousteau's research ship, the *Calypso*.

#### **Work aboard the *Calypso***

On the *Calypso*'s first research voyage to the Red Sea, the maritime (having to do with

sea travel) and diving expertise of her crew was combined with the scientific expertise of academic scientists who came aboard. These expeditions advanced knowledge of the deep by gathering underwater flora (plants) and fauna (animals) and by extensively photographing the underwater world, which is more vast than the surface above water.

When the French Ministry of Education finally provided grants to cover two-thirds of the expenses, Cousteau resigned from the navy in 1957, with the rank of lieutenant commander, to become director of the Oceanographic Museum in Monaco.

#### **Raising awareness**

In 1960 Cousteau was an important part of the movement to prevent the dumping of French atomic waste into the Mediterranean Sea. This movement ended in success. Throughout his life Cousteau enjoyed much recognition for his tireless support of ocean ecology (the relationship between organisms and their environment). In 1959 he addressed the first World Oceanic Congress, an event that received widespread coverage and led to his appearance on the cover of *Time* magazine on March 28, 1960.

In April of 1961 Cousteau was awarded the *National Geographic's* Gold Medal at a White House ceremony hosted by President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963). It was through Cousteau's television programs, however, that his work captured the imagination of a world-wide audience. In 1966 Cousteau's first hour-long television special, "The World of Jacques-Yves Cousteau," was broadcast. It was well received by critics. The program's high ratings were important in landing Cousteau a contract with the American Broadcasting

Company (ABC), which resulted in the series “The Undersea World of Jacques Cousteau” in 1968. The program ran for eight seasons and starred Cousteau, his sons, Philippe and Jean-Michel, and sea creatures from around the globe. In order to raise public opinion against pollution, in 1975 he founded the Cousteau Society, an international organization with branches in several countries (including the United States at Norfolk, Virginia).

In honor of his achievements, Cousteau received the U.S. Presidential Medal of Freedom in 1985. In 1987 he was inducted into the Television Academy’s Hall of Fame, and later received the founder’s award from the International Council of the National Academy of Television Arts and Sciences. In 1988 the National Geographic Society honored him with its Centennial Award, and in 1989 France admitted him membership in its prestigious Academy.

Cousteau died in Paris, France, on June 25, 1997, at the age of eighty-seven. While some critics have challenged his scientific credentials, Cousteau never claimed “expert status” in any discipline. But perhaps to a greater degree than any of his fellow scientists, Cousteau enlightened the public by exposing the irreversible effects of environmental destruction.

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## NOEL COWARD

**Born:** December 16, 1899

**Teddingham, Middlesex, England**

**Died:** March 26, 1973

**Kingston, Jamaica**

*English playwright, composer, and actor*

The English playwright, actor, and composer Noel Coward was known for his likable sophistication and sharp sense of humor. Although he wrote some of the most popular plays of his time, he was also known for his entertaining personality and his abilities as a witty storyteller.

### ***Early acting and plays***

Noel Coward was born on December 16, 1899, in Teddingham, Middlesex, a suburb of London, England. He studied at the Royal Chapel School in London. He came from a musical family, with parents who sang in a choir. A restless and outgoing youth, Coward soon found his way to the stage. At age twelve he made his first appearance on stage in a children’s play. A year later he won praise for his portrayal of “Slightly,” a character in *Peter Pan*.

Coward’s first effort as a playwright, *Rat Trap*, was a realistic study of its characters’ emotions. It was written in 1917 but was not published until 1926. In 1918 he played the leading role in his next play, *The Last Track*. The first drama to receive critical attention



Noel Coward.

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was *The Vortex* (1924), a serious play about drug addiction. During this period he was regarded as the spokesman for the younger generation, although his works were often criticized for being immoral.

In 1929 Coward starred in a Broadway (the New York City theater district) production of his play *Bitter Sweet*. *Bitter Sweet* was a romantic musical (a play featuring songs) that was popular in both Great Britain and the United States. This play's popular song, "I'll See You Again," is regarded as Coward's best-known effort as a composer. His other songs include the witty "Mad Dogs and Englishmen" and "I'll Follow My Secret Heart."

### *A flourishing career*

Coward's important plays throughout the next ten years included *Private Lives* (1930), a sophisticated comedy about a married couple; *Cavalcade* (1931), a patriotic depiction of British tradition; *Design for Living* (1937), a stylish comedy; and *Blithe Spirit* (1941), a fantasy concerning spiritualism (the practice of trying to communicate with the dead, such as in a séance).

During World War II (1939–45)—a war in which Great Britain, France, the United States, the Soviet Union, and other allies fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan, who were attempting to conquer large portions of Europe, Africa, and Asia—Coward performed for troops on the major battlefronts. He later wrote about his experiences in *Middle East Diary* (1945). In 1942 he wrote, acted, and codirected with David Lean in the movie *In Which We Serve*, which showed life aboard a British destroyer (a small, highly armed warship). He continued to work with Lean on the film version of *Blithe Spirit* (1945) and on the script for *Brief Encounter* (1946), one of movie screen's most tender love stories.

Coward's dramas in following years—including *Peace in Our Time* (1947), *Quadrille* (1952), *Nude with Violin* (1956), and *Sail Away* (1961)—were not as fresh as his earlier works. However, he made up for his declining writing ability by starting a new career as an entertainer and raconteur (someone who tells stories or relates incidents with an amusing style and skill). In 1960 he gave his finest acting performance as a spy in the film *Our Man in Havana*, directed by Carol Reed and written by the English novelist and screenwriter Graham Greene (1904–1991). Coward

also wrote two volumes of autobiographical recollections, titled *Present Indicative* (1937) and *Future Indefinite* (1954). His other fictional works include two collections of short stories, *To Step Aside* (1939) and *Star Quality* (1951), and a novel, *Pomp and Circumstance* (1960), which portrayed British life on a South Seas island.

Coward was honored in recognition of his talents and service to his country when he was made a knight by England's Queen Elizabeth (1926–) in 1970. He died on March 26, 1973, in Kingston, Jamaica.

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## --- **MICHAEL CRICHTON**

**Born:** October 23, 1942

**Chicago, Illinois**

*American novelist and screenwriter*

**M**ichael Crichton has been a physician, a teacher, a movie director, and a screenwriter, but he is probably best known for his novels. His writings often combine aspects of science, tech-

nology, and suspense, and he has been called a pioneer of the “techno-thriller” with novels such as *The Andromeda Strain*, *Sphere*, and *Jurassic Park*. Many of his books have been adapted and made into popular movies. He is also the creator of the television series *ER*.

### **Childhood interests**

John Michael Crichton was born in Chicago, Illinois, and raised on Long Island in New York. His father was a journalist, and Crichton has said that his own broad knowledge may have come from his father's wide interests. His mother also regularly took her children to museums, plays, and movies. Crichton was often ill as a child, which led him to spend much time indoors playing with electric trains and performing amateur scientific experiments.

The young Crichton also began to write. At fourteen years of age he wrote and sold articles to the *New York Times* travel section. In 1964 he earned a bachelor's degree from Harvard University. The following year Crichton entered Harvard's medical school, where he began to write novels in order to support his medical studies. He used the pen name (a fictional name adopted by an author who does not want to use his real name) John Lange.

### **Early books**

In 1969 Crichton published his first book under his own name, *The Andromeda Strain*. This novel, which tells the story of a disastrous virus brought to Earth from outer space, brought fame to Crichton. It became the first of many works that were brought to the movie screen. Crichton soon began a full-time writing career.



Michael Crichton.

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Crichton became involved in moviemaking, as well. He directed his screenplay (movie script) of his novel *Westworld* (1973) and wrote the screenplay for his book *The Great Train Robbery* (published in 1975; released in a movie version in 1978). In *Westworld*, which concerns robots who begin to make their own decisions while inhabiting an amusement park, Crichton shows how technology can blur the line between reality and fantasy. *The Great Train Robbery* tells the story of an actual robbery that occurred in nineteenth-century England.

### *Dangers of science and technology*

With his 1980 novel *Congo*, Crichton returned to a plot involving one of his favorite themes: the dangers of science, technology, and greed. In the novel three adventurers travel through dense African rain forests in search of some diamonds that can drastically change computer technology. Amy, a gorilla that is capable of communicating in human language, accompanies the three adventurers. *Congo* was made into a movie in 1995.

An encounter with alien life forms and alien technology was the focus of Crichton's next novel, *Sphere* (1987; released as a movie in 1997). In this book scientists undertake an underwater exploration of an alien spaceship, which lies one thousand feet below the surface. While the scientists explore the spacecraft, disastrous events occur, including an attack by a mysterious, huge squid.

Huge creatures—dinosaurs—are also important in Crichton's *Jurassic Park* (1990). In this tale of greed and technology, a billionaire attempts to build an amusement park on a remote island. The park features actual life-sized dinosaurs created through the wonders of the most advanced science. The project goes terribly wrong when the dinosaurs are freed to roam at will, leading to a deadly battle between the ferocious creatures and a small band of humans.

In 1994 the film version of *Jurassic Park* helped to ensure the worldwide popularity and success of Crichton's novel. The movie's sequel, *The Lost World*, was based on Crichton's book of the same name (published 1995; released as a movie in 1997).

### Other projects

Crichton's other novels include *The Terminal Man* (1972; with a movie version appearing in 1974), *Rising Sun* (1992; movie version 1993), *Disclosure* (1993; movie version 1995), and *Eaters of the Dead* (1976; filmed as *The Thirteenth Warrior* in 1999). He has also written a number of nonfiction books, including *Five Patients: The Hospital Explained* (1970) and *Travels* (1988). Crichton's fame, however, is not limited to his literary efforts. In addition to writing screenplays for movies adapted from his books, he has also directed a number of popular films of his own, including *Coma* and *Looker*. He is also the creator of the long-running television drama *ER*. In a fitting tribute to Crichton's fictional creations, a real-life Jurassic dinosaur species, called *Bienosaurus crichtoni*, was named after the author after its discovery in China.

In April 1999, Crichton formed Timeline Studios, a video game company that failed to reach the success of *Timeline*, Crichton's novel of the same name. Like so many of Crichton's previous books, *Timeline* was snapped up by Hollywood for a film adaptation, scheduled to hit movie screens in 2003.

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## DAVY CROCKETT

**Born:** August 17, 1786

**Hawkings County, Tennessee**

**Died:** March 6, 1836

**San Antonio, Texas**

*American frontiersman and politician*

**D**avy Crockett, American frontiersman and politician, became a folk hero during his own lifetime. Crockett grew up on the frontier and later used his knowledge of it in his political campaigns. Although he is known chiefly as a hunter and a soldier, Crockett also worked for land for settlers, relief for people in debt, and an expanded banking system for Tennessee.

### Early life

David "Davy" Crockett, the son of John and Rebecca Crockett, was born on August 17, 1786, in East Tennessee. He was the fifth of nine children. Crockett's father put him to work driving cattle to Virginia when he was twelve years old. After running away from home to escape a beating from his father, Crockett traveled throughout Virginia. He decided that his lack of education limited his marriage possibilities, so he learned to read, to write a little, and to "cypher," or add and subtract.

In 1806 Crockett married Mary Finely and became a farmer. Frontier farming proved unrewarding, and in 1813 he decided to move his family to Franklin County, Tennessee.



*Davy Crockett.*

### *Life on the frontier*

In 1813, shortly after Crockett moved to Franklin County, frontiersmen ambushed a band of Creek Indian warriors in southern Alabama. Nearby settlers gathered at Fort Mims. The Native Americans attacked the fort and killed over five hundred people. Crockett then volunteered to serve with the frontier military forces in the fight against the Native Americans. In September and October he served as a scout. He went on leave and then returned to military service from September 1814 to February 1815. During this time Crockett served as a scout and a hunter and apparently encountered little fighting.

In 1815 Crockett's first wife died, and he married Elizabeth Patton. While traveling with neighbors in Alabama, he contracted malaria, a disease that causes chills and fever, and was left along the road to die. He recovered and returned to his family, much to their surprise. He has been quoted as remarking about his reported death, "I know'd this was a whopper of a lie, as soon as I heard it."

### *Local and state politics*

In 1817 Crockett and his family moved to Lawrence County, Tennessee. He worked as a justice of the peace and later served as county commissioner. In 1818 he was elected lieutenant colonel of the local military regiment. In 1821 he campaigned for a seat in the state legislature. During the campaign Crockett realized the frontiersmen's isolation and need for recreation. Therefore, he gave short speeches laced with stories that helped lead to his election. Having grown up among the poor settlers, Crockett served as their spokesman. He proposed bills to reduce taxes, to settle land claim disputes, and to protect their general economic interests. In 1823 Crockett was elected to the Tennessee legislature.

### *Congressional career*

In 1825 Crockett ran for a seat in the U.S. Congress but was defeated. He ran again and won in 1827 and was reelected in 1829. Crockett did not agree with many of the policies of President Andrew Jackson (1787–1845). He took a stand against the president on several issues, including Native American removal and land policy. In 1831 when Crockett ran for a third term, he was defeated. Two years later he regained his seat by a narrow margin. In 1834 he published

his autobiography, *A Narrative of the Life of David Crockett of the State of Tennessee*. Then, another defeat in 1835 marked the end of his congressional career.

### ***Death at the Alamo***

In 1835 Crockett and four neighbors headed into Texas looking for new land. By January 1836 he had joined the Texas Volunteers, and within a month he reached San Antonio, Texas. Crockett then joined Texans in their fight to hold the Alamo against a Mexican army. In the first week of March he and the other defenders of the Alamo died during the siege and capture of that fort by Mexican troops. Popular tradition says that Crockett was one of the last defenders who died during the final assault. In reality, Crockett was one of the first defenders to die—alone and unarmed, on March 6, 1836.

Crockett's death at the Alamo made him more famous than his political activities did. Through newspaper accounts and other writings—both fact and fiction—legends concerning Crockett's adventures grew. Descriptions of Crockett are varied, but it is generally thought that he was about 5 feet 8 inches tall, with brown hair, blue eyes, and rosy cheeks. He was noted for his humor, his honesty, and his skill as an entertaining public speaker. Those who knew him realized that he was a man of ability and character.

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## OLIVER CROMWELL

**Born:** April 25, 1599

**Huntingdon, England**

**Died:** September 3, 1658

**London, England**

*English statesman and general*

The English statesman and general Oliver Cromwell won decisive battles in the English civil war. He then established himself and his army as the ruling force in England and later took the title Lord Protector of Great Britain and Ireland. A remarkable ruler, Cromwell helped reestablish England as a leading European power following several years of decline.

### ***Early life***

Oliver Cromwell was born on April 25, 1599, in Huntingdon, England. His father, Richard Cromwell, was a younger son of one of the richest men in the district, Sir Henry Cromwell of Hinchinbrook, who was known as the "Golden Knight." Little is known of Cromwell's childhood, except that his circumstances were modest and he was sent to the local school and developed intense religious beliefs.

In 1616 Cromwell entered Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. He left the following





*Oliver Cromwell.*

year after the death of his father. For the next few years he lived in London. In 1620 he married Elizabeth Bourchier, the daughter of Sir James Bourchier, a wealthy leather merchant. Cromwell then returned to his small estate in Huntingdon. There he farmed his land and played a small part in local affairs, earning a reputation as a champion of the poor. During these years Cromwell experienced periods of deep depression. After much spiritual torment he became convinced that he was the instrument of God.

#### ***Political situation in 1640***

When Cromwell entered Parliament (the governing body of England) in 1640, Charles

I (1600–1649) had ruled England for eleven years. The king had pursued policies in religion and finance, which had disagreed with many country gentlemen, including Cromwell. Furthermore, Charles I had plunged into war with Scotland, who soundly defeated the king.

The mood of Parliament was highly critical. Cromwell joined men in Parliament who believed Parliament should limit the power of the king and the Anglican Church. A middle-aged man without parliamentary experience, Cromwell rarely spoke, but when he did it was usually in support of extreme measures. Cromwell was dedicated to the reform, or improvement, of the Church and of the court. He was also highly critical of the king.

#### ***Civil war***

By 1642 there was no way to avoid war between the King and Parliament. At the outbreak of war in August 1642, Cromwell was assigned a small army of men. He rapidly demonstrated not only his skill as a military leader but also his ability to develop an effective army from his force of raw recruits. Under the leadership of the Earl of Manchester, Cromwell's commander, regiments from other counties were brought together as one force, known as the Eastern Association. Cromwell's reputation as Parliament's most forceful general was made in 1644 at the battle of Marston Moor (July 2, 1644). Cromwell's Ironsides defeated the cavalry (troops) of Prince Rupert, the most successful general of the royalists who fought for the king.

The victories in eastern England, however, were not matched by success elsewhere. After two years of war, the king was still in the field, and relations between Parliament

and the army were growing sour. Many disliked the price paid for alliance with the Scots and most longed for peace. Cromwell, however, yearned for victory. He bitterly attacked the Earl of Manchester. He soon emerged as the effective leader of the parliamentary armies. He proved his exceptional abilities as a general on June 14, 1645, when he defeated the royalists' army at Naseby in Northamptonshire. Within a year the royalist armies had surrendered.

### *End of the war*

In 1648 the royalists rose again, allied with the Scots, but in a lightning campaign Cromwell overtook both. The republicans were then determined to bring Charles I to trial, and Cromwell did nothing to stop them. At last agreeing that the king was "a man of blood" and should be executed, he signed Charles I's death warrant.

The execution of the king settled nothing. Legally the House of Commons ruled, but the army, Scotland, and Ireland were soon in rebellion. In Ireland Cromwell fought a tough, bloody campaign in which he butchered thousands of soldiers at Drogheda (September 11, 1649) and hundreds of civilians at Wexford (October 11). On June 26, 1650, Cromwell finally became commander of the parliamentary armies. At Dunbar in August 1650 he was pressed between the hills and the sea and was surrounded by an army of twenty thousand Scots. But mistakes by the Scottish commander, Leslie, enabled Cromwell to seize victory. Cromwell believed this victory was the work of God.

The next year Charles II and his Scottish army made a spirited dash into England, but Cromwell overtook them at Worcester on

September 3, 1651. At long last the war was over and Cromwell realized that God's humble instrument had been given, for better or worse, supreme power.

### *Cromwell's rule: 1653–58*

For five years after the execution of the king, Parliament tried to formulate a new constitution. On April 20, 1653, Cromwell went with a handful of soldiers to the House of Commons, a part of Parliament. He shouted at the members, "The Lord be done with you," and ordered them out.

For a while Cromwell and his Council ruled most effectively, sweeping away ancient tribal rule in Scotland and Ireland. He then united those countries with England under one Parliament, which was itself reformed. When the Parliament met in 1654, however, it soon quarreled with Cromwell over the constitution. He once more took power into his own hands and dissolved Parliament on June 22, 1655.

From Cromwell's rule local government was brought under major generals, soldiers whom he could trust. This infuriated many. Under a new constitution and a reestablished Parliament, Cromwell took the title Lord Protector. This move also reestablished the House of Lords, another part of Parliament, and made Cromwell king in all but name. But Cromwell did not desire power as other great rulers had. He did not train his son Richard to be his successor, nor did he try to establish his family as a ruling dynasty. And at the height of his power he retained his deep religious belief that he was merely an instrument of God's purpose.

Cromwell pursued an effective foreign policy. His navy enjoyed substantial success

in the West Indies and he allied himself with France against Spain. These victories, combined with his effective handling of Scotland and brutal conquering of Ireland, made him a popular and powerful ruler. Shortly after his death on September 3, 1658, Cromwell's government collapsed, and the restoration of the monarchy (sole ruler) followed in 1660.

### ***Cromwell's legacy***

Cromwell's greatness will always be questioned. As a general, he was gifted yet lucky. As a statesman, he had some success but was unable to realize many goals. Britain emerged from the Commonwealth stronger, more efficient, and more secure. Perhaps the most remarkable of Cromwell's qualities were his seriousness and his self-control. Few men have enjoyed such supreme power and abused it less.

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## WALTER CRONKITE

**Born:** November 4, 1916

**St. Joseph, Missouri**

*American broadcaster and journalist*

Walter Cronkite is an American journalist and radio and television news broadcaster who became one of an outstanding group of correspondents and commentators that the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) News developed after World War II (1939–45; a war in which Germany, Italy, and Japan fought against Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States).

### ***Early years***

Walter Leland Cronkite was born on November 4, 1916. He was an only child. His father was a dentist and his mother, Helena Lena (Fritsch) managed the home. While he was still a youngster the family moved to Texas, where his father took a position at the University of Texas Dental School. During that time Walter read an article in *American Boy* magazine about the adventures of reporters working around the world. It inspired his interest in journalism and he decided when he was in junior high school that he wanted to be a reporter. His preparation for that career began with his work on his high school yearbook and newspaper. He was also active in student government and athletics, particularly track.

In 1933 Cronkite entered the University of Texas at Austin, where he studied political science, economics, and journalism. He took a part-time job with the *Houston Post* newspaper. This set him on a professional career which led him to leave college after two years to serve in several different journalism jobs, including general reporter for the *Post*, radio announcer in Kansas City, Missouri, and sportscaster in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. After Cronkite's time at the *Post*, his principal employer for several years was United Press International

(UPI). He covered World War II in Europe. He also served as chief correspondent at the Nuremberg war crimes trials (1945–46), and as head of the Moscow (Russia) office from 1946 to 1948.

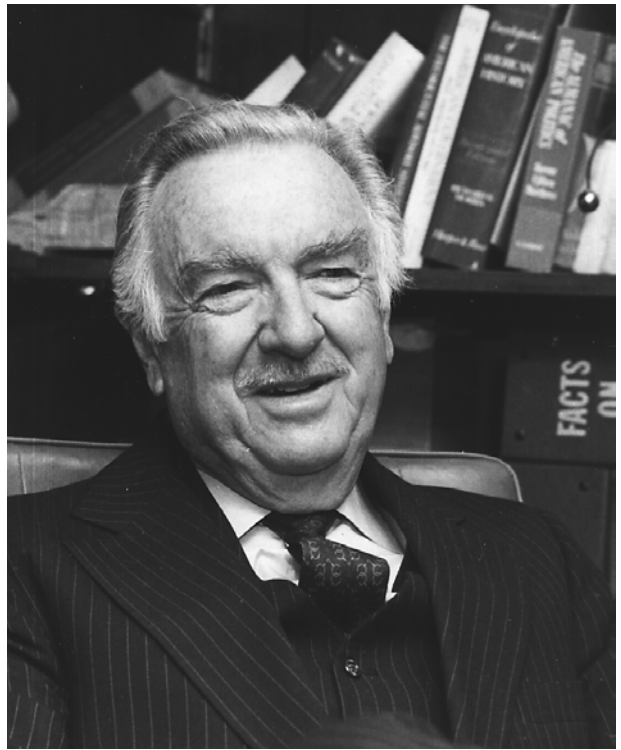
### *Years at CBS*

In 1950 Cronkite joined CBS News. Up to this point he was largely unknown to the general public. Two years later he was narrator for *You Are There*, a television program in which major historical events were recreated as though they were current news events. In 1954 he became narrator of *The Twentieth Century*, an outstanding television documentary recounting the events of recent history. This job gave Cronkite recognition with the viewing public.

Starting in 1952 Cronkite also served as the anchor for the CBS coverage of the Democratic and Republican national presidential conventions. With the exception of the 1964 Democratic convention, he continued this role until his retirement in 1981.

Cronkite assumed the duties of anchor and editor for the *CBS Evening News* in 1962. At that time the National Broadcasting Company's (NBC) *Huntley-Brinkley Report*, hosted by Chet Huntley and David Brinkley, led viewer ratings. Gradually, the CBS broadcasts gained ground on the team at NBC, which broke up in 1970. From that time until his retirement, Cronkite's program was consistently the most popular television news broadcast.

Although the evening news was Cronkite's main responsibility, he maintained his leading role as narrator and correspondent on network specials. These included



*Walter Cronkite.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

space shots, major documentaries, and interviews with world figures such as presidents Harry Truman (1884–1972), Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969), and Lyndon Johnson (1908–1973). After his retirement he continued this role in addition to the periodic series, *Walter Cronkite's Universe*.

For a society that emphasized youthfulness, it was a paradox (contradiction) that Cronkite's reputation increased as he grew older. His white hair and mustache gave him a distinguished look. Cronkite's reputation did not rest on appearance, however. He earned recognition and praise through hard work, a passion for accuracy, and an insis-

tence on impartiality (being neutral). Underlying that was a lifelong competitive spirit, which was moderated in front of the microphone and camera but which came out in his leisure activities of sailing, tennis, and race car driving.

### ***Strengths as a reporter***

Cronkite was quite concerned with not becoming part of the story he was reporting. He stated, "I built my reputation on honest, straight-forward reporting. To do anything else would be phony. I'd be selling myself and not the news." Yet there were memorable instances when he failed to remain completely separated from a story, such as his obvious emotional reaction when announcing the death of President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963); his broadcast pronouncement in 1968, upon returning from Vietnam, that he doubted United States policy for that region could succeed; and his undeniable enthusiasm when Neil Armstrong (1930–) became the first person on the moon in 1969.

Despite Cronkite's philosophy of detachment, he sometimes influenced the news, as in his 1977 televised interview with Egyptian leader Anwar Sadat (1918–1981), which led Sadat to visit Israel and led Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin (1913–1992) to visit Egypt. Cronkite was an unintentional news topic in 1980, when John Anderson (1922–), running as an independent presidential candidate, mentioned Cronkite as his likely running mate. (Former Wisconsin governor Patrick Lucey wound up as Anderson's choice.)

The depth of respect for Cronkite's work is reflected in the numerous awards he has

received: the Peabody for Radio and Television, the William Allen White Award for Journalistic Merit, as well as the Emmy. In 1981, during his final three months on the *CBS Evening News*, Cronkite received eleven major awards, including the Presidential Medal of Freedom. In 1985 he became the second newsman, after Edward R. Murrow (1908–1965), to be selected for the Television Hall of Fame. At his retirement Cronkite was the most commonly mentioned person on the "dream list" for lecturers at conventions, clubs, and college campuses.

### ***Post-CBS retirement***

After retiring as anchor of the *CBS Evening News*, Cronkite served as CBS News special correspondent and on the network's board of directors from 1981 to 1991. He also anchored the CBS News science magazine series *Walter Cronkite's Universe*, (1980–82). From the late 1980s until 1992 he hosted *Walter Cronkite's 20th Century*, a daily, ninety-second account of same-day historical events.

In 1993 Cronkite formed his own production company and produced several award-winning documentaries for The Discovery Channel, the Public Broadcasting Service (PBS), and other networks. One of those, *Cronkite Remembers*, aired in early 1997 in conjunction with the late 1996 publication of his autobiography, *A Reporter's Life*. During the 1996 presidential campaign, Cronkite headed efforts to convince networks to offer free television time for presidential candidates.

In 2001 Cronkite published *Around America: A Tour of our Magnificent Coastline*. He also signed on to do the voice of Ben Franklin in a new PBS animated series, *Liberty Kids*.

Cronkite raised television news broadcasting to a level of professionalism that was praised around the world. His qualifications as a newspaperman and war correspondent, along with his unwillingness to stray from a hard news format that dealt only with important events and their facts, demonstrated that acceptance and popularity in television news need not rest on covering trivial topics. Walter Cronkite continues to be admired by both his colleagues and by his audience. For many people he is the example of what a broadcast journalist should be.

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## **E. E. CUMMINGS**

**Born:** October 14, 1894

Cambridge, Massachusetts

**Died:** September 3, 1962

North Conway, New Hampshire

*American poet*

The American poet E. E. Cummings wrote verse that presented romantic attitudes in an experimental style. Cummings's poems are not only ideas but crafted physical objects that show a fresh way of looking at reality.

### ***Youth and education***

Edward Estlin Cummings was born to a well-known family in Cambridge, Massachusetts, on October 14, 1894. His father, Edward, was a professor at Harvard University and later the nationally known minister of Old South Church in Boston, Massachusetts. His mother, Rebecca, who loved to spend time with her children, played games with Cummings and his sister, Elizabeth. It was Cummings's mother who introduced him to the joys of writing. Cummings wrote poems and also drew as a child, and he often played outdoors with the many other children who lived in his neighborhood. He also grew up in the company of such family friends as the philosophers William James (1842–1910) and Josiah Royce (1855–1916). He graduated from Harvard University in 1915 and then received an advanced degree from Harvard in 1916.

### ***Early career***

After graduating, Cummings became an ambulance driver in France just before America entered World War I (1914–1918; a war involving most European countries and, later, the United States). He was imprisoned for three months on suspicion of holding views critical of the French war effort, and this experience provided the material for his first book, *The Enormous Room* (1922).



E. E. Cummings.

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Cummings's romantic transcendentalism (which stressed the individual human being and his or her emotional experiences, the worship of nature, and the "spiritual"—or nonmaterial—basis of reality) resulted in the early rejection of his work, for it was not popular at the time. For several decades he had to pay for the publication of his work, and reviewers revealed very little understanding of his aims. His first volume of poems, *Tulips and Chimneys* (1923), was followed by a second volume two years later. Though Cummings received the Dial Award for poetry in 1925, he continued to have difficulty in finding a publisher.

In the ten years following 1925 only two volumes of Cummings's poems were published, both at his own expense: *is 5* (1926) and *W (ViVa; 1931)*. In that decade Cummings also arranged for the publication of an experimental play, *Him* (1927), and a diarylike account of a trip to the Soviet Union, *Eimi* (1933). With his characteristic harsh wit, Cummings named the fourteen publishers who had rejected the manuscript of *No Thanks* (1935) in the book itself and said "Thanks" to his mother, who had paid for its publication.

### *Poetic methods and achievement*

Despite his dedication to growth and movement, and in contrast to his reputation as an experimenter in verse forms, Cummings actually tended to lack fresh invention. Especially in the 1930s, when he felt separated from his culture and his fellow poets, he repeated himself endlessly, writing many versions of essentially the same poem. Many of Cummings's devices, such as the visual "shaping" of poems, often seem like substitutes for original inspiration. However, Cummings's most characteristic devices—the unique, personal grammar and the breaking up and putting back together of words into different forms—were more than just another trick when they operated within the context of a poem's meaning.

The love poems and religious poems represent Cummings's greatest achievements. For example, "somewhere i have never travelled, gladly beyond" is one of the finest love poems in the English language, and Cummings's poem on the death of his beloved father, "my father moved through dooms of love," is a profoundly moving tribute. Cummings wrote some of the finest celebrations of sexual love and the religious experience of

awe produced in the twentieth century, precisely at a time when it was not at all popular to write such poems.

Early in his career Cummings had divided his time between New York City and Paris, France, where he studied painting. Later in his career he divided his time between New York City and the family home in North Conway, New Hampshire. He was always interested in the visual arts, and his paintings and drawings were exhibited in several one-man shows in the 1940s and 1950s.

### **Ripening into honor**

After 1945 a new generation of poets in rebellion against the poets of the previous generation began to find in Cummings an echo of their own ideas about poetry, and Cummings began to receive the recognition that had escaped him for so long. In 1950 the Academy of American Poets awarded Cummings, a self-described “failure,” a fellowship for “great achievement,” and his collection *Poems, 1923–1954* (1954) won praise from people who had earlier tended to criticize Cummings for his romanticism.

Harvard University honored its distinguished graduate by asking Cummings to deliver the Charles Eliot Norton Lectures in 1952–1953, his only attempt at formal artistic autobiography (a person’s own telling of his or her life story). It was later published as *i: six nonlectures* (1953). In the lectures Cummings said that perhaps fifteen poems were faithful expressions of his thoughts as an artist and human. The total number of truly memorable short poems is certainly higher than this small figure, but is still only a fraction of the nearly one thousand poems published in his lifetime.

### **Late works**

Cummings did not “develop” as a poet either in terms of ideas or of characteristic style. However, between the publication of his first volume and his final, called *73 Poems* (1963), his work does show a deepening awareness and mastery of his special gift as poet of the mysteries of “death and forever with each breathing.” His finest single volume is often said to be *95 Poems* (1958). Cummings’s *Collected Poems* was published in 1960.

In addition to the works mentioned, Cummings published several other experimental plays, a ballet, and some fifteen volumes of verse. Shortly before his death at North Conway, New Hampshire, on September 3, 1962, Cummings wrote the text to accompany photographs taken by his third wife, Marion Morehouse. Titled *Adventures in Value* (1962), this work is a good example of his lifelong effort to see intensely and deeply enough to confront the miracles of nature. If only a tenth of his poems should be thought worthwhile, Cummings will have been established as one of the more lasting poets America has produced.

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## MARIE CURIE

**Born:** November 7, 1867

**Warsaw, Poland**

**Died:** July 4, 1934

**Sancellemoz, France**

*Polish-born French physicist*

The Polish-born French physicist Marie Curie invented the term “radioactivity” and discovered two elements, radium and polonium. Curie was not only the first woman to win the Nobel Prize in Physics, but when she won the Nobel Prize in Chemistry, she became the first person ever to win the Nobel Prize twice.

### *Early life*

Marie Sklodowska Curie was born in Warsaw, Poland, on November 7, 1867, the youngest of five children of Wladislaw and Bronislava Boguska Sklodowska. After her father lost his job, the family struggled and was forced to take borders (renters) into their small apartment. Religious as a child, Curie rejected her faith after her sister died of typhus (a severe fever) in 1876. Two years later she lost her mother to tuberculosis, a terrible disease that attacks the lungs and bones.

Marie was a brilliant student, gaining a gold medal upon completing her secondary education in 1883. As girls could not attend universities in Russian-dominated Poland, Marie spent a year in the country with friends at her father's suggestion. Upon returning to her father's house in Warsaw the next summer, she began to earn her living through pri-

vate tutoring. She also became associated with the “Floating University,” a group of young men and women who tried to quench their thirst for knowledge in secret sessions.

In early 1886 Marie accepted a job as governess (private educator) with a family living in Szczuki, Poland, but the intellectual loneliness she experienced there only solidified her determination to somehow achieve her dream of becoming a university student. One of her sisters, Bronya, was already in Paris, France, successfully passing the examinations in medicine. In September 1891 Marie moved in with her sister in Paris.

### *Work in Paris*

When classes began at the Sorbonne in Paris in early November 1891, Marie enrolled as a student of physics. By 1894 she was desperately looking for a laboratory where she could work on her research project, the measurement of the magnetic properties of various steel alloys (metal mixtures). Acting upon a suggestion, she visited Pierre Curie at the School of Physics and Chemistry at the University of Paris. In 1895 Pierre and Marie were married, thus beginning a most extraordinary partnership in scientific work.

By mid-1897 Curie's scientific achievements were two university degrees, a fellowship (a scholarship), and a monograph (published paper) on the magnetization of tempered steel. The couple's first daughter, Irène, had just been born, and it was then that the Curies turned their attention to the mysterious radiation from uranium recently discovered by Antoine Henri Becquerel (1852–1908). It was Marie's hunch that the radiation was an atomic property, and therefore had to be present in some other elements

as well. Her search soon established the fact of a similar radiation from thorium, and she invented the historic word “radioactivity” (the spontaneous release of radium).

While searching for other sources of radioactivity, the Curies had turned their attention to pitchblende, a mineral well known for its uranium content. To their immense surprise the radioactivity of pitchblende far exceeded the combined radioactivity of the uranium and thorium contained in it. From their laboratory two papers reached the Academy of Sciences within six months. The first, read at the meeting of July 18, 1898, announced the discovery of a new radioactive element, which the Curies named polonium after Marie’s native country. The other paper, announcing the discovery of radium, was read at the December 26 meeting.

From 1898 to 1902 the Curies converted several tons of pitchblende, but it was not only the extremely precious centigrams of radium that rewarded their superhuman efforts. The Curies also published, jointly or separately, during those years a total of thirty-two scientific papers. Among them, one announced that diseased, tumor-forming cells were destroyed faster than healthy cells when exposed to radium.

### **Recognition**

In November 1903 the Royal Society of London gave the Curies one of its highest awards, the Davy Medal. A month later followed the announcement from the Nobel Foundation in Stockholm, Sweden, that three French scientists, A. H. Becquerel and the Curies, were the joint recipients of the Nobel Prize in Physics for 1903. Finally, even



*Marie Curie.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

the academics in Paris began to stir, and a few months later Marie was appointed director of research at the University of Paris.

In December 1904 their second daughter, Ève, was born. The next year brought the election of Pierre to the Academy of Sciences and their travel to Stockholm, where, on June 6, he delivered the Nobel Prize lecture, which was in fact their joint address. Pierre ended his speech with the double-edged impact on mankind of every major scientific advance. Pierre said that he believed “mankind will derive more good than harm from the new discoveries.”

### End of an era

The joyful time for this husband-and-wife team would not last long. On the rainy mid-afternoon of April 19, 1906, Pierre was run down by a heavy carriage and killed instantly. Two weeks later the widow was asked to take over her late husband's post. Honors began to pour in from scientific societies all over the world on a woman left alone with two small children and with whom the gigantic task of leadership in radioactivity research was now left. In 1908 she edited the collected works of her late husband, and in 1910 she published her massive *Traité de radioactivité*. Shortly after this work Curie received her second Nobel Prize, this time in chemistry. Still, Curie was unable to win over the Academy of Sciences, who once again denied her membership.

Curie devoted much of her time during World War I (1914–18) to equipping automobiles in her own laboratory, the Radium Institute, with x-ray (Roentgen) apparatus to assist the sick. It was these cars that became known in the war zone as “little Curies.” By the end of the war Curie was past her fiftieth year, with much of her physical energy already spent—along with her savings, which she had patriotically invested in war bonds. But her dedication was inexhaustible. The year 1919 witnessed her installation at the Radium Institute, and two years later her book *La Radiologie et la guerre* was published. In it she gave a most informative account of the scientific and human experiences gained for radiology (the use of radiation) during the war. At the end of the war, her daughter Irène, a physicist, was appointed as an assistant in her mother's laboratory.

Shortly afterward, a momentous visit took place in the Radium Institute. The visitor was Mrs. William B. Meloney, editor of a leading magazine in New York and representative of the countless women who for years had found in Curie their ideal and inspiration. A year later Meloney returned to tell Curie that a nationwide subscription in America had produced the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, which was needed to purchase a gram of radium for her institute. She was also asked to visit the United States with her daughters and collect the precious gift in person. Her trip was an absolute triumph. In the White House, President Warren G. Harding (1865–1923) presented her with the golden key to the little metal box containing the radium.

### Later years

On questions other than scientific, Curie rarely uttered public comment of any length. One of the exceptions was her statement at a conference in 1933 on “The Future of Culture.” There she rallied to the defense of science, which several panelists held responsible for the dehumanization of modern life. “I am among those,” she emphasized, “who think that science has great beauty. A scientist in his laboratory is not only a technician; he is also a child placed before natural phenomena which impress him like a fairy tale. We should not allow it to be believed that all scientific progress can be reduced to mechanism, machines, gearings, even though such machinery also has its own beauty.”

The most heartwarming experience of the last phase of Curie's life was probably the marriage of her daughter Irène in 1926 to Frédéric Joliot (later Joliot-Curie), the most

gifted assistant at the Radium Institute. Before long it was evident to her that their union would closely resemble her own marvelously creative partnership with Pierre Curie.

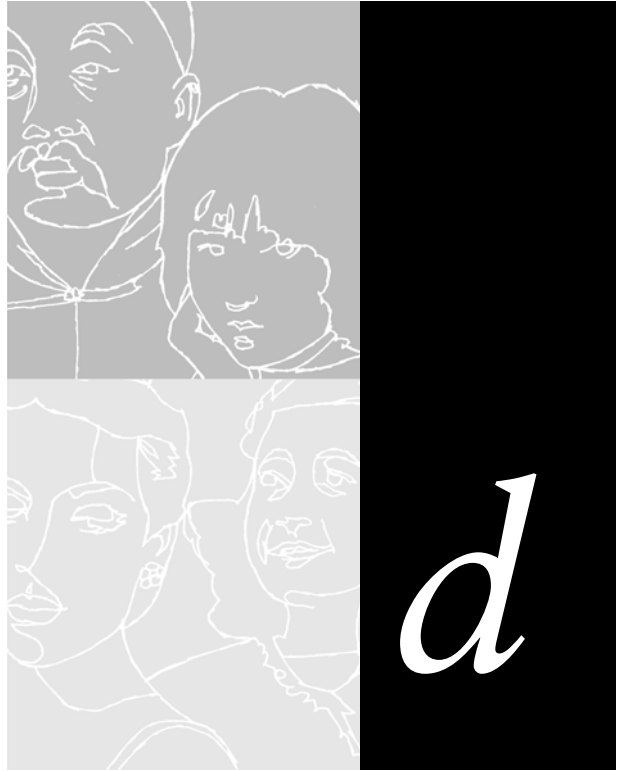
She worked almost to the very end and succeeded in completing the manuscript of her last book, *Radioactivité*. In the last years her younger daughter, Ève, was her great support. Ève was also her mother's faithful companion when, on July 4, 1934, Curie died in Sancellemoz, France. Albert Einstein

(1879–1955) once said, “Marie Curie is, of all celebrated beings, the only one whom fame has not corrupted.”

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## ROALD DAHL

**Born:** September 13, 1916

**Llandaff, South Wales**

**Died:** November 23, 1990

**Oxford, England**

*Welsh author*

A writer of both children's fiction and short stories for adults, Roald Dahl is best known as the author of the 1964 children's book *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* (he also wrote the script for the 1971 movie version). Dahl has been described as a master of story construction with a remarkable ability to weave a tale.

### *A young troublemaker*

Roald Dahl was born September 13, 1916, in Llandaff, South Wales, United Kingdom, to Norwegian parents. He spent his childhood summers visiting his grandparents in Oslo, Norway. He was a mischievous child, full of energy, and from an early age he proved himself skilled at finding trouble. His earliest memory was of pedaling to school at a very fast speed on his tricycle, with his two sisters struggling to keep up as he whizzed around curves on two wheels.

After his father died when Dahl was four, his mother followed her late husband's wish that Dahl be sent to English schools. Dahl first attended Llandaff Cathedral School, where he began a series of unfortunate

adventures in school. After he and several other students were severely beaten by the principal for placing a dead mouse in a storekeeper's candy jar, Dahl's mother moved him to St. Peter's Boarding School and later to Repton, an excellent private school. Dahl would later describe his school years as "days of horrors" filled with "rules, rules and still more rules that had to be obeyed," which inspired much of his gruesome fiction. Though not a good student, his mother nevertheless offered him the option of attending Oxford or Cambridge University when he finished school. His reply, recorded in his

book about his childhood called *Boy: Tales of Childhood*, was, "No, thank you. I want to go straight from school to work for a company that will send me to wonderful faraway places like Africa or China."

### *The birth of a writer*

After graduating from Repton, Dahl took a position with the Shell Oil Company in Tanganyika (now Tanzania), Africa. In 1939 he joined a Royal Air Force training squadron in Nairobi, Kenya, serving as a fighter pilot in the Mediterranean during World War II (1939–45). Dahl suffered severe head injuries in a plane crash near Alexandria, Egypt. Upon recovering he was sent to Washington, D.C., to be an assistant air attache (a technical expert who advises government representatives). There Dahl began his writing career, publishing a short story in the *Saturday Evening Post*. Soon his stories appeared in many other magazines. Dahl told Willa Petschek in a *New York Times Book Review* profile that "as I went on, the stories became less and less realistic and more fantastic. But becoming a writer was pure fluke. Without being asked to, I doubt if I'd ever have thought of it."

In 1943 Dahl wrote his first children's story, *The Gremlins*, and invented a new term in the process. Gremlins were small creatures that lived on fighter planes and bombers and were responsible for all crashes. Through the 1940s and into the 1950s Dahl continued as a short story writer for adults, establishing his reputation as a writer of deathly tales with unexpected twists. His stories earned him three Edgar Allan Poe Awards from the Mystery Writers of America.

### **Inspired by his children**

In 1953 Dahl married Hollywood actress Patricia Neal, star of such movies as *The Fountainhead* and, later, *Hud*, for which she won an Academy Award. Although the marriage did not survive, it produced five children. As soon as the children were old enough, Dahl began making up stories for them each night before they went to bed. These stories became the basis for his career as a children's writer, which began seriously with the publication of *James and the Giant Peach* in 1961. It tells the fantastic tale of a young boy who travels thousands of miles in a house-sized peach with as strange a group of companions as can be found in a children's book. Dahl insisted that having to invent stories night after night was perfect practice for his trade, telling the *New York Times Book Review*: "Children are . . . highly critical. And they lose interest so quickly. You have to keep things ticking along. And if you think a child is getting bored, you must think up something that jolts it back. Something that tickles. You have to know what children like."

### **Controversy**

One way that Dahl delighted his readers was to take often vicious revenge on cruel adults who had harmed children, as in *Matilda* (1988). But even some innocent adults received rough treatment, such as the parents killed in a car crash in *The Witches* (1983). Many critics have objected to the rough treatment of adults. However, Dahl explained in the *New York Times Book Review* that the children who wrote to him always "pick out the most gruesome events as the favorite parts of the books. . . . They don't relate it to life. They enjoy the fantasy." He

also said that his "nastiness" was payback. "Beastly people must be punished."

In *Trust Your Children: Voices Against Censorship in Children's Literature*, Dahl said that adults may be disturbed by his books "because they are not quite as aware as I am that children are different from adults. Children are much more vulgar than grownups. They have a coarser sense of humor. They are basically more cruel." Dahl often commented that the key to his success with children was that he joined with them against adults.

"The writer for children must be a jokey sort of a fellow," Dahl once told *Writer*. "He must like simple tricks and jokes and riddles and other childish things. He must be . . . inventive. He must have a really first-class plot."

### **Why a writer?**

Dahl's children's fiction is known for its sudden turns into the fantastic, its fast-moving pace, and its decidedly harsh treatment of any adults foolish enough to cause trouble for the young heroes and heroines. Similarly, his adult fiction often relied on a sudden twist that threw light on what had been happening in the story.

Looking back on his years as a writer in *Boy: Tales of Childhood*, Dahl contended that "two hours of writing fiction leaves this particular writer absolutely drained. For those two hours he has been miles away, he has been somewhere else, in a different place with totally different people, and the effort of swimming back into normal surroundings is very great. It is almost a shock. . . . A person is a fool to become a writer. His only [reward] is absolute freedom. He has no master except

his own soul, and that, I am sure, is why he does it.”

Roald Dahl died in Oxford, England, on November 23, 1990.

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## DALAI LAMA

**Born:** July 6, 1935

**Taktser, Tibet**

*Tibetan religious and political leader*

The Dalai Lama is the fourteenth leader in a line of Buddhist spiritual and political leaders of Tibet. Buddhists are followers of Gautama Buddha (c. 563–c. 483 B.C.E.), who believed the troubles of this life can be overcome through moral and mental discipline. The Dalai Lama fled his country and took safety in India in 1959 during the revolt against Chinese control of Tibet. Since that time, while still in exile (a forced or a voluntary absence from one's country), he has promoted Tibetan religious and cultural traditions.

### **Early family life**

The name given the Dalai Lama when he was born on July 6, 1935, was Lhamo Thondup. He came from a very small village in northeast Tibet called Taktser. At that time there were only twenty families living in all of Taktser. “Dalai Lama” is a name of honor and respect that was given to him by the Buddhist monks of Tibet. “Lama” means “teacher” or “wise person.” “Dalai” means “ocean.” When put together Dalai Lama is translated as “Ocean of Wisdom.”

The young Dalai Lama's parents were farmers who raised sheep and grew barley, buckwheat, and potatoes. In addition to Lhamo there were six other children in the family, four boys and two girls.

### **The Dalai Lama**

The current Dalai Lama is the fourteenth person to hold that title in straight succession. This means the role is passed from one person to another with no break in order. The people of Tibet believe that when one Dalai Lama dies he is reincarnated (reborn) in a young child. In other words, they believe that the soul of the current Dalai Lama is the same soul that was in the first Dalai Lama.

The Dalai Lamas have been the head of the order of Gelugpa Buddhism, which means “Yellow Hat,” since the fourteenth century. The Dalai Lama took on the additional role of political leader in the seventeenth century. All Dalai Lamas since that time have had that dual responsibility.

### **How he was discovered**

The thirteenth Dalai Lama died in December of 1933. When he died, the Bud-

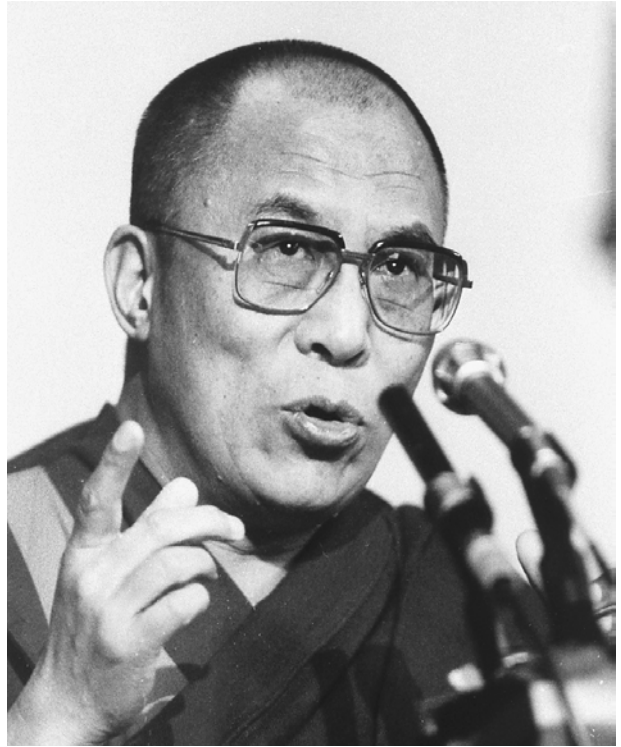


dhist monks prayed for guidance to find the new Dalai Lama. They felt signs and oracles (divine answers or prophecies) would lead them to him. They finally received a vision that the new Dalai Lama would be found in the northeast part of Tibet. He would be living in a house that had strange gutters and that was near a monastery (a place where monks live and pray).

Many monks went out on the journey. After much searching, a group of them came to the village of Taktser, which has a monastery nearby. There they found Lhamo at his house, which had strangely shaped gutters. They spoke to him and to his parents and performed a test. The monks had brought several items with them from their home monastery. Some of the items had belonged to the thirteenth Dalai Lama and others were imitations or just common objects. Lhamo correctly identified the objects that had belonged to the thirteenth Dalai Lama. The monks knew they had found the reincarnation of their leader. Lhamo was two years old at the time.

### ***His education***

The monks took Lhamo to a monastery in Kumbum, Tibet. For two years he was given the basic education he would need to lead his country both spiritually and politically. After this he was brought to the Potala palace in Lhasa, the capital of the country. The Potala palace is a structure of over one thousand rooms built into a mountain. There he took his place on the Lion Throne, a richly carved, wooden throne covered with jewels. He was only four years old on February 22, 1940, when the monks declared that he was the new Dalai Lama. He took the name Jamphel Ngawang Lobsang Yeshe Tenzin Gyatso



*Dalai Lama.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

in honor of lamas who had served before him. Since then, however, he has only used a shortened version of that name for himself—Tenzin Gyatso.

The monks at the Potala palace gave the Dalai Lama private instruction. His only classmate was one of his brothers. According to a long-standing tradition, when the young Dalai Lama misbehaved in class, it was his brother who was punished. Over the years the Dalai Lama learned penmanship, history, religion, philosophy, Tibetan medicine, art, music, and literature, among many other subjects. Throughout all of his study he attended meetings of the government.

The Dalai Lama loved working with mechanical things. He spent a great deal of time with his telescope. He enjoyed taking watches and small machines apart and putting them back together. There were only four cars in all of Tibet at that time and three belonged to the thirteenth Dalai Lama. Tenzin Gyatso loved working with the engines and trying to drive the cars.

The Dalai Lama took over the political leadership of Tibet in November 1950, not long after the Chinese Communist army invaded the country. (Communism is a political system based on the belief that property should not be owned by any individual but should belong to everyone in common. Communists also believe that all business should be under the control of the government.) The Dalai Lama was fifteen years old and leading a country on the brink of crisis.

### *His exile*

Mainland China had become a communist nation in 1949 after World War II (1939–45; a war in which the Allies, including France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States, defeated the Axis forces of Germany, Italy, and Japan). Mao Zedong (1893–1976) led communist China. Eighty thousand members of the Chinese army invaded Tibet in early 1950. The Chinese said the people of Tibet invited the army to save them from the rule of a cruel government. The Chinese also claimed that Tibet was originally a part of China.

Neither of these statements were true. The Dalai Lama visited with the Chinese to ask them to leave Tibet. They would not. He visited neighboring countries to try to get help to push the invaders out. The other

countries, however, were afraid of what might happen to them if they opposed a nation as powerful as China, and they offered little support. After years of trying to negotiate with the Chinese and seeing his people suffer under Chinese rule, the Dalai Lama finally fled to India in April 1959. He has been away from his native Tibet since then.

### *His life after exile*

The Dalai Lama learned Buddhist thought and practice as part of his monastic (done by monks or nuns) training. The people of Tibet still consider him to be their spiritual and political leader. Since his exile he has worked tirelessly to help Tibetans who have managed to flee their country. He has worked with many Westerners for the cause of returning Tibet to its own people.

The Dalai Lama's contact with Westerners has broadened his interest beyond Buddhism. He has given many speeches and written several books. In them he discusses how religions are similar in their development of love and compassion and in their pursuit of goodness and happiness for all beings. He is greatly admired, not just by Buddhists, but by people everywhere. He speaks not only of spiritual matters, but also of global peace and environmental concerns. His thoughts are received as popular and universal messages.

In 1987 the Dalai Lama was the recipient of the Albert Schweitzer Humanitarian Award, named after the famous Dr. Schweitzer (1875–1965), who worked in Africa. In 1989 the Dalai Lama was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

The Dalai Lama remains an active and revered humanitarian (someone who believes

in human welfare and social reform) throughout the world, even though an intestinal illness he suffered in January 2002 caused him to cut back on his schedule. He has spent much of his time traveling, speaking against communism, and working for peace. He has a devoted following that includes individuals from all over the world and from all walks of life. His struggles for peace and freedom have made him one of the most recognized and well-regarded political and spiritual leaders in the world.

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## SALVADOR DALI

**Born:** May 11, 1904

**Barcelona, Spain**

**Died:** January 23, 1989

**Figueras, Spain**

*Spanish painter and artist*

**T**he Spanish painter Salvador Dali was one of the best-known surrealist artists (artists who seek to express

the contents of the unconscious mind). Blessed with an enormous talent for drawing, he painted his dreams and bizarre moods in a precise way.

### **Early life**

Salvador Dali was born on May 11, 1904, near Barcelona, Spain. He was the son of Salvador and Felipa Dome (Domenech) Dali. His father was a notary (one who witnesses the signing of important documents). According to Dali's autobiography (the story of his own life), his childhood was filled with fits of anger against his parents and classmates and he received cruel treatment from them in response. He was an intelligent child, producing advanced drawings at an early age.

Dali attended the Colegio de los Hermanos Maristas and the Instituto in Figueras, Spain. By 1921 he convinced his father that he could make a living as an artist and was allowed to go to Madrid, Spain, to study painting. He was strongly influenced by the dreamlike works of the Italian painter Giorgio de Chirico (1888–1978). He also experimented with cubism (a type of art in which objects are viewed in terms of geometry—the science of points, lines, and surfaces). He was briefly imprisoned for political activities against the government and was finally thrown out of art school in 1925.

### **Association with surrealist movement**

Dali's own style eventually began to show itself: he would draw, in an extremely precise manner, the strange subjects of his dream world. Each object, while carefully drawn, existed in strange contrast to other objects and was contained in a space that often appeared to tilt sharply upward. He applied bright col-



*Salvador Dali.*

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ors to small objects set off against large patches of dull color. His personal style showed a number of influences, strongest among which was his contact with surrealism. The surrealists believed in artistic and political freedom to help free the imagination. Dali's first contact with the movement was through seeing paintings; he then met other surrealist artists when he visited Paris, France, in 1928. Dali created some of his finest paintings in 1929.

In the early 1930s many of the surrealists began to break away from the movement, feeling that direct political action had to come before any artistic revolutions. Dali put forth his "Paranoic-Critical method" as a way to

avoid having to politically conquer the world. He felt that by using his own vision to color reality to his liking it would become unnecessary to actually change the world. The Paranoic-Critical method meant that Dali had trained himself to possess the power to look at one object and "see" another. This did not apply only to painting; it meant that Dali could take a myth that was interpreted a certain way and impose upon it his own personal ideas.

A key event in Dali's life during this time was meeting his wife, Gala, who was at that time married to another surrealist. She became his main influence, both in his personal life and in many of his paintings. Toward the end of the 1930s, Dali's exaggerated view of himself began to annoy others. André Breton (1896–1966), a French poet and critic who was a leading surrealist, angrily expelled Dali from the surrealist movement. Dali continued to be very successful in painting as well as in writing, stage design, and films, but his seriousness as an artist began to be questioned. He took a strong stand against abstract (unrealistic) art and began to paint Catholic subjects in the same tight style that had previously described his personal nightmares.

### **Later years**

In 1974 Dali broke with English business manager Peter Moore and had the rights to his art sold out from under him by other business managers, leaving him with none of the profits. In 1980 a man named A. Reynolds Morse of Cleveland, Ohio, set up an organization called Friends to Save Dali. Dali was said to have been cheated out of much of his wealth, and the goal of the foundation was to put him back on solid financial (relating to money) ground.

In 1983 Dali exhibited many of his works at the Museum of Contemporary Art in Madrid. This show made him hugely famous in Spain and brought him further into favor with the Spanish royal family and major collectors around the world. After 1984 Dali was confined to a wheelchair after suffering injuries in a house fire.

Dali died on January 23, 1989, in Figueras, Spain. He was remembered as the subject of much controversy (dispute), although in his last years, the controversy had more to do with his associates and their dealings than with Dali himself.

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## CLARENCE DARROW

**Born:** April 18, 1857  
Farmdale, Ohio

**Died:** March 13, 1938

**Chicago, Illinois**

*American lawyer*

As an American labor lawyer and as a criminal lawyer, Clarence Darrow participated in debates about the path of American industrial growth and the treatment of individuals in conflict with the law.

### **Early life**

Clarence Seward Darrow was born on April 18, 1857, in Farmdale, Ohio, the fifth of Amirus and Emily Darrow's eight children. His father, after completing studies at a seminary (institution for training members of the priesthood), had lost his faith and become a nonbeliever living within a strongly religious community. (The Darrows were also outsiders in a political sense; they were Democrats in a strongly Republican area.) The elder Darrow worked as a carpenter and coffin maker. His mother, who died when he was fifteen, was a strong supporter of women's rights. From his parents Darrow received a love of reading and a skeptical (doubting) attitude toward religion.

Darrow, after completing his secondary schooling near Farmdale, spent a year at Allegheny College in Meadville, Pennsylvania, and another year at the University of Michigan Law School. Like most lawyers of the time, he delayed his admission to the bar until after he had studied under a local lawyer. He finally became a member of the Ohio bar in 1878. For the next nine years he was a typical small-town lawyer, practicing in the cities of Kinsman, Andover, and Ashtabula, Ohio. He married Jessie Ohl, the daugh-



Clarence Darrow.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

ter of a mill owner, in 1880, and the couple had a son three years later.

Seeking more interesting opportunities, however, Darrow and his family moved to Chicago, Illinois, in 1887. In Ohio he had been impressed with the book *Our Penal Machinery and Its Victims* by Judge John Peter Altgeld. Darrow became a close friend of Altgeld, who was elected governor of Illinois in 1892. Altgeld not only raised questions about the process of criminal justice but, after pardoning several men who had been convicted for their part in the Haymarket riot of 1886 (a dispute between striking laborers and the Chicago police that led to

the bombing deaths of seven policemen), he also questioned the treatment of those who were trying to organize workers into unions. Both of these themes played great roles in Darrow's life.

### *Labor lawyer*

Darrow had begun as a common civil lawyer. Even in Chicago his first jobs included appointment as the city's corporation counsel in 1890 and then as general attorney to the Chicago and North Western Railway. In 1894, however, he began what would be his main career for the next twenty years—labor law. During 1894 he defended labor leader Eugene V. Debs (1855–1926) against a court order trying to break the workers' strike Debs was leading against the Pullman Sleeping Car Company. Darrow was unsuccessful, though; the order against Debs was finally upheld by the Supreme Court.

In 1906 and 1907 Darrow successfully defended William D. "Big Bill" Haywood, the leader of the newly formed Industrial Workers of the World, against a charge of plotting to murder the former governor of Idaho. But in 1911 disaster struck, as Darrow, while defending two brothers against a charge of killing twenty-one people by blowing up the *Los Angeles Times* building, was suddenly faced with his clients' changing their previous plea of innocent to guilty. There were also rumors that Darrow had attempted to bribe one of the members of the jury. As a result, Darrow was charged with misconduct, although he was found not guilty on all charges. This event ended his career as a labor lawyer, however.

### ***Criminal lawyer***

Darrow had always been interested in criminal law, in part because of his acceptance of new theories involving the role of determinism in human behavior. He believed that criminals were people led by outside factors (such as personality and environment) into committing unlawful acts. For this reason he was a bitter opponent of capital punishment, viewing it as an inhuman practice. Now he began a new major career as a criminal lawyer.

Without a doubt Darrow's most famous criminal trial was the 1924 Leopold-Loeb case, in which two Chicago college students had murdered a youngster simply to see if they could get away with it. For the only time in his career, Darrow insisted that his clients plead guilty. He then turned his attention to saving them from the death penalty. He was successful in this, partly because he was able to introduce a great deal of testimony from psychiatrists (doctors who deal with mental or behavioral disorders) supporting his theories regarding the determining influences on individual acts. In another successful case he defended members of an African American family charged with murdering a member of the Ku Klux Klan (KKK; a secret society whose members believe that white people are superior and who frequently resort to violence against nonwhite citizens) who had attempted to drive them from their home.

### ***Scopes trial***

During this period Darrow was also involved in another great American case, the Scopes trial of 1925 in Dayton, Tennessee. The issue was the right of a state legislature to prohibit the teaching in public schools of Charles Darwin's (1809–1882) theories of

evolution (which suggested that the origins of humans and apes could be traced back to a common ancestor). Darrow, as a nonbeliever in religion and a believer in evolution, was annoyed with the religious tone of the law that had been passed. He sought to defend the young schoolteacher, John T. Scopes, who had raised the issue of evolution in his classroom. Technically, Darrow was unsuccessful, as Scopes was convicted and fined \$100 for what the court believed was a crime. But Darrow's defense, and particularly his cross-examination of William Jennings Bryan (1860–1925), the three-time Democratic candidate for president who spoke for the religious, antiscientific side, won national attention and led many to question the wisdom of strict interpretation of the Bible.

Two books among Darrow's many writings are evidence of his interests toward the end of his life. In 1922 he wrote *Crime: Its Cause and Treatment*; in 1929 appeared *Infidels and Heretics*, coedited with Wallace Rice, in which he presented the case for free thinking. To these two issue-oriented books he added *The Story of My Life* (1932), an autobiography (the story of his own life). Darrow's last important public service was as chairman of a commission appointed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt. The commission examined the operation of the National Recovery Administration, an agency set up during the early 1930s to regulate industry competition and workers' wages and hours. Darrow died on March 13, 1938.

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## CHARLES DARWIN

**Born:** February 12, 1809

Shrewsbury, England

**Died:** April 19, 1882

Kent, England

*English naturalist*

In *The Origin of Species* the English naturalist Charles Darwin outlined the theory of natural selection, or "survival of the fittest," as the explanation for the changing of living beings over time.

### *Early life and education*

Charles Robert Darwin was born on February 12, 1809, in Shrewsbury, England, the fifth child of Robert and Susannah Darwin. His father was a successful doctor, as was his grandfather, Erasmus Darwin, who had a great influence on Charles's later theories. His mother, who was the daughter of the famous pottery maker Josiah Wedgwood (1730–

1795), died when Charles was eight. His sisters then raised him. At the age of nine Charles entered Shrewsbury School. He was not a very good student.

In 1825 Darwin went to Edinburgh University in Scotland to study medicine, but he soon realized that he was unable to even watch an operation being performed. In 1828 he entered Christ's College, Cambridge, England, to become a minister. He soon gave up that idea also, but he continued to study. He attended John Stevens Henslow's course in botany (the study of plants), started a collection of beetles that became famous, and read widely. He received his bachelor's degree in 1831.

### *Voyage of the Beagle*

On Henslow's recommendation Darwin was offered the position of naturalist for the second voyage of *H. M. S. Beagle* to survey the coast of South America. The *Beagle* left in December 1831 and returned in October 1836. During the voyage Darwin studied many different plants and animals and collected many specimens, concentrating on location and habits. Darwin was influenced in his *Beagle* studies by scientist Charles Lyell's *Principles of Geology* (1830–33), which stated that present conditions and processes were clues to the Earth's past history.

Darwin noticed on the trip that certain types of organisms existed only in certain areas and that many organisms had gone through changes that made it easier for them to survive in certain environments. For example, he studied a type of bird called a finch and realized that there were over a dozen different kinds. The size and shape of the beaks of these birds differed depending



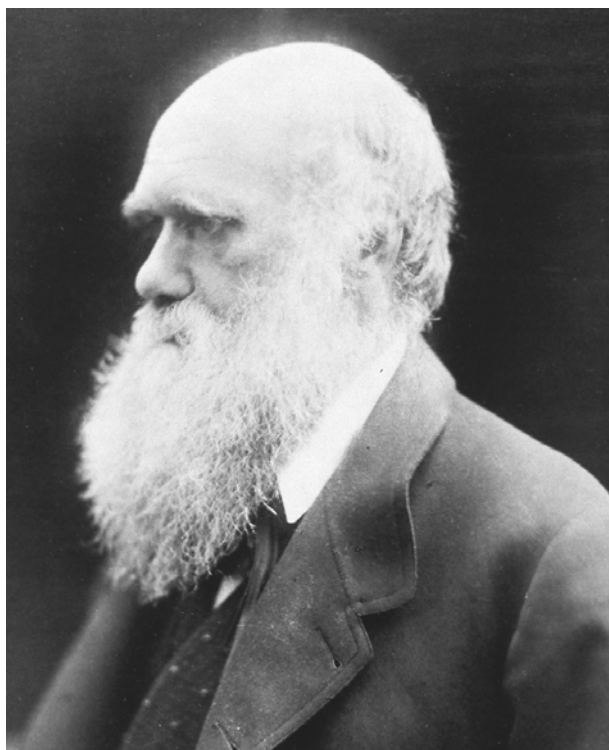
on what kind of food was available in the area each lived in.

Darwin's *Journal of Researches* was published in 1839. With the help of a government grant to cover the cost of the illustrations, the *Zoology of the Voyage of the Beagle* was published in five volumes from 1839 to 1843. A number of scientists wrote articles on fossils (the preserved remains of creatures from an earlier age), living mammals, birds, fish, and reptiles. Darwin edited the work. He contributed information on the habits and ranges of the animals and made notes on the fossils. He also published *The Structure and Distribution of Coral Reefs* (1842), for he had studied the coral reefs in the Cocos Islands during the *Beagle* voyage.

### ***Development of ideas on evolution***

In 1842 and 1844 Darwin wrote short accounts of his views on evolution (change and improvement over time). However, the publication of other related works around the same time caused great controversy (dispute) and criticism of the authors, and Darwin decided the time was not yet right for him to enter the argument. He decided to wait and do more research. Darwin studied the practices of pigeon breeders, he conducted experiments on differences in plants and animals over time, and he worried about the problem of plant and animal transport across land and water barriers—for he believed in the importance of isolation for the creation of new species.

In May 1856 Lyell heard of Darwin's ideas and urged him to write an account with full references. Darwin sent a chapter to Lyell and Sir Joseph Hooker, who were deeply impressed. In June 1858, when Darwin was



Charles Darwin.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

halfway through his writing, he received an essay from another naturalist, Alfred Russel Wallace (1823–1913), containing the theory of evolution by natural selection—the same theory Darwin was working on. Lyell and Hooker arranged for a reading of a combined paper by Wallace and Darwin, and it was presented at a meeting of the Linnaean Society in London, England, on July 1. The paper had little effect.

### **Origin of Species**

In November 1859 Darwin published *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection, or the Preservation of Favoured Races*

in the *Struggle for Life*. His basic idea was that in the struggle to survive, some organisms adapt better than others to their surroundings, and when these survivors give birth they pass their traits on to their offspring, causing species to evolve. An English philosopher (seeker of wisdom) named Herbert Spencer created the phrase “survival of the fittest” to describe this idea.

The publication of Darwin's book brought worldwide attention to his theory and created heated dispute. Darwin was aware of all the criticism he received and tried to answer it in the additional five editions of *Origin* that were produced during his lifetime. In these editions he wanted to avoid trouble and wound up making several changes; this weakened his presentation and made him seem unsure of his views. The first edition is easily the best.

#### Later works

In *On the Various Contrivances by Which British and Foreign Orchids Are Fertilised by Insects* (1862), Darwin showed how the survival of an organism may be dependent on seemingly unimportant qualities. It became hard to say what is “useless” in nature. In *The Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication* (1868), he expanded on a topic he had introduced in *Origin*. With *The Descent of Man and Selection in Relation to Sex* (1871) Darwin caused another uproar by suggesting that humans and apes both could be traced to a common ancestor.

Darwin became increasingly interested in plants, especially since he had his son Francis to help with the work. Papers Darwin had published in 1864 were collected into *The Movements and Habits of Climbing Plants*

(1875), and these ideas were further explained and published as *The Power of Movement in Plants* (1880). Darwin's last work returned to observations he had made in 1837: *The Formation of Vegetable Mould through the Action of Worms, with Observations on Their Habits* (1881).

Darwin had married Emma Wedgwood, his first cousin, in 1839. Four of their sons became prominent scientists. He died on April 19, 1882, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

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BETTE  
DAVIS

**Born:** April 5, 1908

**Lowell, Massachusetts**

**Died:** October 6, 1989

**Neuilly-sur-Seine, France**

*American actress*

Bette Davis was one of Hollywood's greatest actresses. In her sixty-year career in films she won two Best Actress Academy Awards and was a finalist for eight others.

### Early years

Ruth Elizabeth Davis was born in Lowell, Massachusetts, on April 5, 1908, the eldest daughter of Harlow Morrell Davis, a lawyer, and Ruth Favor Davis. She was called Bette as a child and kept the name throughout her career. After her parents divorced in 1916, she and her sister, Barbara, moved frequently throughout New England with their mother, who was pursuing a photography career. Both girls attended boarding school in the Berkshires and went to high school in Newton, Massachusetts. Bette started acting in plays and taking drama classes while she was in school. She graduated from Cushing Academy, in Ashburnham, Massachusetts, with an idea that she might try acting. But she received little encouragement, as she was not considered very beautiful. She had made up her mind, though, and she headed for New York City.

### Slow start to career

Davis enrolled in John Murray Anderson's drama school and found some work with George Cukor's acting company in Rochester, New York. She also worked at the Cape Playhouse in Dennis, Massachusetts, as an usherette (a female guide who escorts people to correct seats in theaters or in other events) and a bit-part player. Her first major role was in a stage production of *The Earth Between* (1928). After a brief tour in *The Wild Duck*, Davis reached Broadway. The comedy



Bette Davis.

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*Broken Dishes* opened in November 1929 and ran for six months. That led to a 1930 production of *Solid South*, after which she failed a screen test in Hollywood.

Davis was also tested at Universal Studios and hired, even though studio executives were not very supportive. She appeared in two films in 1931, *Bad Sister* and *Seed*. The critics ignored her in both. Davis got a break when she was offered a part in *The Man Who Played God*. She received good reviews and a long-term contract from the Warner Brothers studio. This began a series of films with Warner, mostly unremarkable and insignificant, but critics began to notice Davis's talent and unique quality. Davis

began to claw her way to the top of the film world. She fought for and won the right to appear in another studio's production of *Of Human Bondage*. Suddenly, the world was introduced to a brilliant new actress.

### **Success arrives**

Warner continued to cast Davis in poor-quality films, with two exceptions. Playing a failed actress who tries to murder her husband in *Dangerous*, she won her first Best Actress Academy Award in 1935. She also appeared with Humphrey Bogart (1899–1957) and Leslie Howard in *The Petrified Forest* in 1936. Growing disgusted with the studio's offerings, Davis refused any more roles. The studio suspended her. She sued, which shocked the movie world. Although Davis lost her battle in court, Warner Brothers apparently got the message—they paid her legal fees and began offering her better roles. Her performance in *Jezebel* (1938) won her a second Academy Award.

By the end of the 1940s, Davis's career seemed to be slowing down. But she came through with a great performance in *All About Eve* (1950), winning the New York Film Critics best actress of the year award. After a number of films in the 1950s, Davis's career seemed to slow down again. But in 1962, Davis appeared in the smash hit *Whatever Happened to Baby Jane?*, acting opposite Joan Crawford (1904–1977). This was followed by *Hush*, *Hush*, *Sweet Charlotte* in 1965.

### **Later years**

During the 1970s and 1980s, Davis continued to appear in films, mainly on television. She also appeared on many talk shows, delighting her audiences by her refusal to give

in to old age. She was the fifth person to receive the American Film Institute's Life Achievement Award in 1977 and the first woman to be so honored. In 1979 she won an Emmy Award for *Strangers: The Story of a Mother and Daughter*.

Davis wrote two books about her own life, *The Lonely Life* (1962) and *This 'N That* (1987) (the second of which answered charges by her daughter that Davis was an alcoholic who had abused her children). She was also married four times. In the last five years of her life, Davis suffered from cancer and had several strokes. She died on October 6, 1989, in Neuilly-sur-Seine, France. She had just attended the San Sebastian Film Festival in Spain, where she had been honored for a lifetime of film achievement. In 1997 her son Michael created the Bette Davis Foundation. A year later he awarded American actress Meryl Streep (1949–) the first ever Bette Davis Lifetime Achievement Award.

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**MILES  
DAVIS**

**Born: May 25, 1926**  
**Alton, Illinois**

**Died:** September 28, 1991

**Santa Monica, California**

*African American musician, composer,  
and trumpeter*

A jazz trumpeter, composer, and small-band leader, Miles Davis was the leading jazz musician for more than two decades. His legend continued to grow even after poor health and diminished creativity removed him from jazz royalty.

### **Early life**

Miles Dewey Davis III was born to Miles Davis Jr. and Cleota Henry in Alton, Illinois, on May 25, 1926. There were also two other children, an older sister and a younger brother. In 1928 the family moved to East St. Louis, Illinois, where Davis's father became a successful oral surgeon. Davis enjoyed a comfortable childhood and the family lived in a white neighborhood. At the age of thirteen his father gave him a trumpet and soon Davis joined his high school band. While still in high school he met and was coached by his earliest idol, the great St. Louis trumpeter Clark Terry (1920–).

After fathering two children by a woman friend, Davis moved to New York City in 1944. He worked for just two weeks in the talent-packed Billy Eckstine Band, then enrolled in the Juilliard School of Music. By day he studied classical music, and by night he gained experience in jazz's newest movement, bebop, with the leaders of the movement, notably Charlie Parker (1920–1955), Dizzy Gillespie (1917–1993), Fats Navarro, and Max Roach (1924–).



*Miles Davis.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

### **“Cool” jazz**

Davis's stint from 1947 to 1948 in a quintet (group of five musicians) led by bebop genius Charlie Parker brought him early fame. A fine bebop trumpeter, Davis soon felt a need to rid his music of bebop's style and to restore jazz's more melodic elements. The result was the influential recording *Birth of the Cool* (1949), which gave “birth” to the so-called “cool,” or West Coast, jazz school. This recording established Davis' musical identity, separate from Parker and the other beboppers.

In the early 1950s Davis became a heroin (dangerous drug made from morphine)

addict. His career came to a near halt for three years, but his ultimately successful fight against the drug habit in 1954 led to his greatest period: the mid-to-late 1950s. During that six-year span he made a series of small group recordings regarded as jazz classics. In 1954, with tenor saxophone titan Sonny Rollins (1930–), he made memorable recordings of three Rollins originals—“Airegin,” “Doxy,” and “Oleo”—as well as two brilliant versions of the Tin Pan Alley (a respected group of musicians and songwriters) standard “But Not for Me.”

In 1955 Davis formed his most celebrated group, a remarkably talented quintet that featured tenor saxophonist John Coltrane (1926–1967), pianist Red Garland, bassist Paul Chambers, and drummer Philly Joe Jones. Until Coltrane left in the 1960s, Davis's band was the single most visible and dominant group in all of jazz. In 1964 he put together a new band, and Davis continued to be the greatest attraction (and biggest money-maker) in all of jazz. His new band, however, could not match the impossibly high standards of the original band.

### *Davis, the person*

For the last two decades of Davis's career he became more of a jazz curiosity than a musician to be taken seriously. A good part of his fame owed less to his considerable musicianship than to his strange personality. Davis gained a poor reputation in performance for turning his back on audiences, for expressing racial hostility toward whites, for dressing poorly early in his career and wildly later—all of which contributed to his mysterious image.

Davis was a complex man with strengths and weaknesses that would ultimately

destroy him. Himself the victim of a policeman's clubbing (reportedly, racially inspired), he had the fairness and courage in the late 1950s to challenge black jazzmen's expectations by filling a piano vacancy with a white player, Bill Evans (1929–1980); but then, by all accounts, Davis often racially taunted him. A physical fitness enthusiast (with his own private gym), he nevertheless took vast amounts of drugs (sometimes, but not always, for pain). Oftentimes unfriendly, he was also capable of acts of generosity toward struggling musicians, both black and white.

Davis was married three times—to dancer Frances Taylor, singer Betty Mabry, and actress Cicely Tyson. All three marriages ended in divorce. He had, in all, three sons, a daughter, and seven grandchildren. He died on September 28, 1991, in Santa Monica, California, of pneumonia, respiratory failure, and a stroke.

Davis remains one of the most influential musicians in the history of jazz. His music lives on in recordings like *Miles Ahead* (1957), *Porgy and Bess* (1958), and *Sketches of Spain* (1960), and the hauntingly “blue” sound of his trumpet.

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## OSSIE DAVIS

**Born:** December 18, 1917

**Cogdell, Georgia**

*African American actor, playwright, director, and activist*

Ossie Davis is a leading African American playwright, actor, director, and television and movie star. He was a part of the civil rights movement and helped lead the way for a new generation of African American film directors.

### Early life

Ossie Davis was born in Cogdell, Georgia, on December 18, 1917, the oldest of five children of Kince Charles Davis and Laura Cooper Davis. He grew up in Waycross, Georgia. His father was a railroad construction engineer who entertained his family by telling stories. While still attending Central High School in Waycross, Davis decided to become a writer after witnessing how badly prejudiced white people treated his father. At Howard University in Washington, D.C., Davis was encouraged to pursue an acting career. He left college after his junior year and joined an acting group in Harlem in New York City. He also took part in the American Negro Theater, founded there in 1940.

### Stage and screen career

Davis made his debut in the play *Joy Exceeding Glory* (1941). In 1942 he was drafted into the U.S. Army to serve during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis—Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the

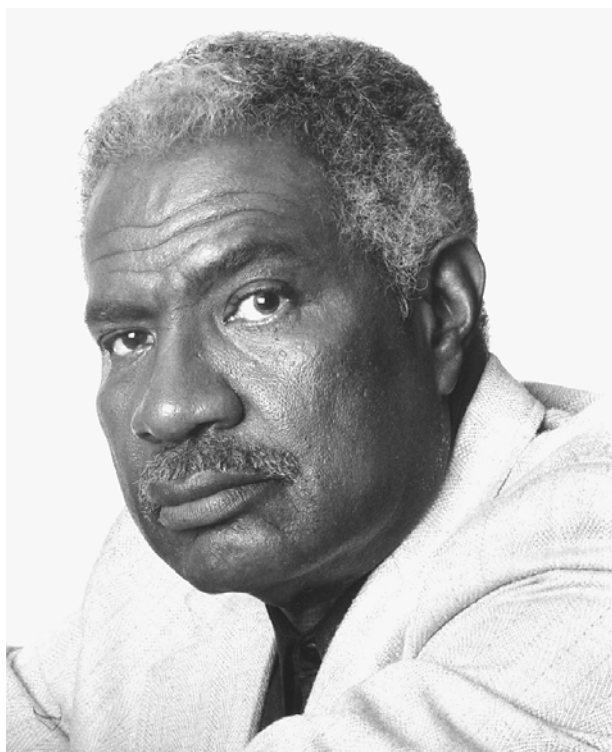
Allies—Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). He worked in Liberia with the Medical Department and also wrote and produced shows. After the war he returned to the stage, playing his first Broadway role in *Jeb* (1946). While performing in this show he met actress Ruby Dee (1924–), and they were married two years later.

Davis's first movie role was in *No Way Out* (1950). This was followed by Broadway performances in *No Time for Sergeants*, *Raisin in the Sun*, and *Jamaica*. Other movie roles included *The Cardinal*, *Shock Treatment*, and *Slaves*. He was also one of the first African American actors to work regularly in television, appearing in dramas and on such regular series as *The Defenders* and *The Nurses*. Davis also wrote television scripts.

Davis and Ruby Dee acted together many times on the stage, in television, and in movies. They starred in Davis's own play *Purlie Victorious* (1961) and in the movie based on it, *Gone Are the Days*. *Purlie Victorious* was published and also reprinted in collections of plays. Davis went on to coauthor the musical version of the play, *Purlie* (1970), which enjoyed great success during its Broadway run.

### Director and writer

In the late 1960s Davis became one of the few African American film directors when he worked on *Cotton Comes to Harlem* and other films. With Ruby Dee he appeared on stage and television, reading the poetry of famous African Americans, and he made recordings of African American literature. One of his most famous moments was his tribute to Malcolm X (1925–1965) in 1965, when he called the slain Muslim leader “Our Shining Black Prince.” Davis also frequently



Ossie Davis.

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gave lectures and readings at universities and schools.

Davis's published essays include "The Wonderful World of Law and Order," "The Flight from Broadway," and "Plays of Insight Are Needed to Make the Stage Vital in Our Lives." He also wrote the play *Last Dance for Sybil* and a musical version of Mark Twain's *Pudd'nhead Wilson*.

Davis has a deep love for his people. He is an example of African American pride, and he devoted much time and talent to the civil rights movement (a mass movement starting from the mid-1900s that led to the end of seg-

regation [separation based on race] and equal rights for African Americans) in America. He received a number of awards, including the Mississippi Democratic Party Citation, the Howard University Alumni Achievement Award in dramatics, and the Frederick A. Douglass (c. 1817–1895) Award (with Ruby Dee) from the New York Urban League. The Davises have three children and make their home in New Rochelle, New York.

### Later years

In his later years Davis has remained very active, mostly in television. He appeared on the Public Broadcasting System (PBS) program *With Ossie and Ruby*, as well as on the popular series *Evening Shade*. He also helped pave the way for a new generation of African American film directors, led by Spike Lee (1957–). Davis performed in three of Lee's films, including *Do the Right Thing* (1989). Davis even tried his hand at writing fiction. His novel *Just Like Martin*, a tribute to the civil rights movement, was published in 1992.

In January 1999 Davis and his wife Ruby Dee celebrated fifty years of marriage at a benefit for community theaters in New York City. Later that year they were among several people arrested while protesting the shooting of an unarmed West African immigrant by New York City police officers. In 2001 Davis and Dee were honored with a Screen Actors Guild Lifetime Achievement Award at ceremonies held in Los Angeles, California.

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## SAMMY DAVIS JR.

**Born:** December 8, 1925

**New York, New York**

**Died:** May 16, 1990

**Los Angeles, California**

*African American singer, dancer, and actor*

American entertainer Sammy Davis Jr. had a career that spanned more than five decades. He started in vaudeville (short funny acts on stage, such as song-and-dance and singing) and progressed to Broadway theater, film, and performing in Las Vegas, Nevada.

### *Learned to tap dance like a master*

Sammy Davis Jr., born on December 8, 1925, began performing almost as soon as he could walk. Both of his parents, Elvera Sanchez and Sammy Davis Sr., were vaudevillians who danced with the Will Mastin Troupe. Sammy Jr. became the Mastin Troupe's youngest member at age three. He became a regular at age five and traveled with his father on the shrinking vaudeville circuit. Sammy Jr. was able to dance very quickly in a style called "flash dancing." He danced so well that once, competing against older chil-

dren, he won a silver cup and ten dollars. By the time he was eight years old he had appeared in two movies.

Sammy Jr.'s demanding schedule of travel, practice, and performances left little time for formal education. When he could afford it, his father hired tutors. But Sammy Jr. could not read much more than comic books until he grew up and joined the army. His unconventional childhood did provide him with important lessons, however. Young Sammy learned how to please an audience, how to tap dance like a master, and how to move people with a smile and a song.

### *The growing movie industry*

Few vaudeville acts in the 1930s survived the competition from the growing motion picture industry. The Mastin Troupe decreased gradually until it became a three-person act—Sammy Davis Sr., Will Mastin, and Sammy Davis Jr. By 1940 Sammy Jr. had become the star attraction. The act was popular enough to receive billings in larger clubs, and in that environment Davis met other performers such as Bill "Bojangles" Robinson (1878–1949), Frank Sinatra (1915–1998), and various big band leaders.

### *The army*

Davis was drafted into the United States Army in 1943, when he turned eighteen. An African American sergeant, who taught him how to read, befriended him. He was constantly mistreated by white troops, however, with whom he shared living quarters. Transferred to an entertainment regiment, Davis eventually found himself performing in front of some of these same soldiers. He discovered that his energetic dancing and singing could



Sammy Davis Jr.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

win over the bigots (people who are opposed to others because of their race or their beliefs).

### **Headliner in Las Vegas and New York**

Davis went solo in 1950 after signing a recording contract with Decca Records. His first two albums, *Starring Sammy Davis, Jr.* and *Just for Lovers*, sold well. Soon Davis was a headliner (main performer) in Las Vegas and New York, as well as a guest star on numerous television shows.

On November 19, 1954, Davis nearly lost his life in an automobile accident in the California desert. The accident shattered his

face and caused him to lose his left eye. While recovering, he spent hours discussing philosophy (the study of humans and their place in the universe) with a rabbi (Jewish spiritual leader) on staff at the hospital. Shortly thereafter he converted to Judaism. Upon Davis's return to the stage he sold out every performance and received thunderous applause. Some critics suggested that he might have had hidden motives for converting to Judaism. Others, however, especially African Americans, applauded his thoughtful observations about Jews, African Americans, and oppression.

Davis began the 1960s as a certified superstar of stage and screen. He had turned "Mr. Wonderful" into a successful Broadway show, and he earned critical raves for his performance in the film *Porgy and Bess*. As a member of the high-profile "Rat Pack," he associated with Frank Sinatra, Dean Martin (1917–1995), Peter Lawford (1923–1984), and Joey Bishop (1918–) at fashionable nightclubs in Las Vegas and Los Angeles, California.

In 1965 Davis starred in another Broadway play, *Golden Boy*, and in two movies, *A Man Called Adam* and *Sweet Charity*. He also starred in two television shows during the same years, *The Sammy Davis, Jr. Show* and *The Swinging World of Sammy Davis, Jr.*

### **Pitfalls of the "swinging world"**

Davis's "swinging world" had its dangers, however. Many people disapproved of his 1960 interracial marriage to Swedish actress Mai Britt. His "Rat Pack" habits of drinking and partying threatened his health. Further, heavy spending nearly bankrupted (lost all one's money) him, even though he earned more than a million dollars a year.

Throughout the 1960s Davis had been a vocal supporter of the Black Power movement and other left-wing (liberal) causes. In the early 1970s he lost support of some liberals and members of the African American community when he embraced President Richard M. Nixon (1913–1994) and performed in Vietnam, which was the site of the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war between the communist forces of North Vietnam and United States-backed South Vietnam). By that time Davis had developed liver and kidney trouble and spent some months in the hospital early in 1974.

Davis recorded albums throughout his career and performed a number of signature songs. Chief among these were his tribute to Bill Robinson, “Mr. Bojangles,” the ballads “What Kind of Fool Am I” and “I’ve Gotta Be Me,” and his biggest hit, the upbeat “Candy Man.” Davis’s singing was like everything else in his performance—energetic, spirited, and played to maximum effect.

The last fifteen years of Davis’s life were conducted at the performer’s usual hectic pace. In 1978 he appeared in another Broadway musical, *Stop the World—I Want To Get Off*. He occasionally served as a stand-in host for the popular “Tonight Show,” and he returned to the casino stages. Even hip surgery failed to stop Davis from performing. His best-known act in the 1980s was a musical review with his friends Sinatra and Liza Minnelli (1946–), which played to sold-out crowds in the United States and Europe just a year before Davis’s death.

Doctors discovered a tumor in Davis’s throat in August of 1989. The performer underwent painful cancer treatment that at first seemed successful. Within a few months the cancer returned, however. Davis died on May

16, 1990, only eight weeks after his friends honored him with a television special.

### *A mentor and a pioneer*

Davis’s long career in show business was even more remarkable because he managed to break color barriers in an era of segregation (the separation of a race from the rest of society) and racism (the belief that some races are better than others). He was one of the very few stars, African American or white, to receive Emmy, Tony, and Grammy Award nominations. His many honors and awards, including a prestigious Kennedy Center medal for career achievement, serve as reflections of the affection his fans felt for him.

During his lifetime Sammy Davis Jr. was not universally adored. Some observers accused him of shamelessly flattering his audiences to win their admiration. Those sentiments were forgotten, however, when Davis died at the relatively young age of sixty-four. In eulogies (public speeches for a person who has recently died) across the country, entertainers and others cited Davis as a mentor and a pioneer who reached mainstream audiences even though he hailed from minority groups in both race and religion.

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## *reader's guide*

*U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography* features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

for further information. A contents section lists biographees by their nationality. Nearly 750 photographs and illustrations are featured, and a general index provides quick access to the people and subjects discussed throughout *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*.

### ***Special thanks***

Much appreciation goes to Mary Alice Anderson, media specialist at Winona Middle School in Winona, Minnesota, and Nina Levine, library media specialist at Blue Mountain Middle School in Cortlandt Manor, New York, for their assistance in developing the entry list. Many thanks also go to the following people for their important editorial contri-

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### ***Comments and suggestions***

We welcome your comments on the *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*. Please write: Editors, *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*, U•X•L, 27500 Drake Road, Farmington Hills, MI 48331-3535; call toll-free: 1-800-877-4253; fax to 248-699-8097; or send e-mail via [www.gale.com](http://www.gale.com).



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## JAMES DEAN

**Born:** February 8, 1931

**Marion, Indiana**

**Died:** September 30, 1955

**Paso Robles, California**

*American actor*

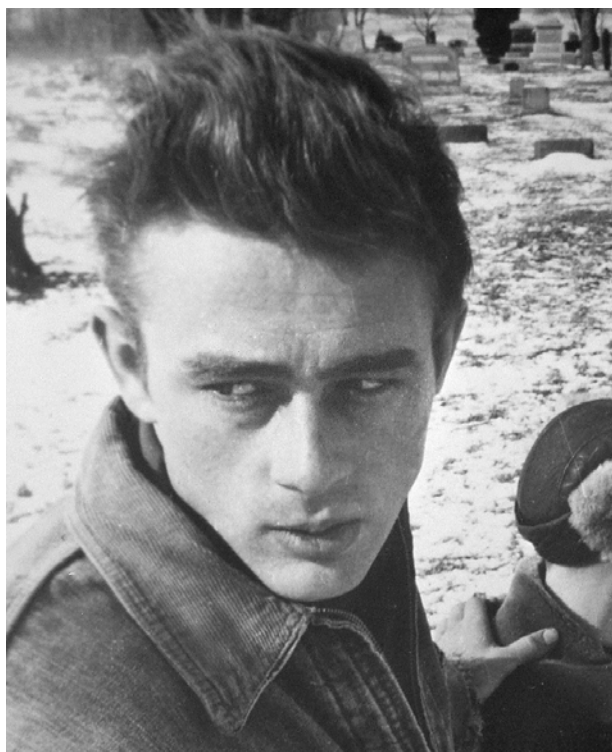
American actor James Dean had a short-lived but intense acting career that began in 1952 and ended tragically with his death in September 1955. After his death he became a cult figure (a legendary person), and fans have marveled for decades at his ability to duplicate their adolescent (teenage) agony on screen.

### *Childhood*

Born on February 8, 1931, in Marion, Indiana, James Byron Dean was the only child of Winton and Mildred (Wilson) Dean. Winton, a dental technician (a person who creates dental appliances), moved his family to Santa Monica, California, when Dean was six years old. Dean was particularly close to his mother, who had dreams of him being a performer. She enrolled him in tap dance lessons at the age of three, and taught him violin.

In July 1940 Dean's mother died of cancer. This was a loss he would feel strongly all of his life. His father sent him back to Fairmount, Indiana, to live with Marcus and Ortense Winslow, Winton Dean's sister and brother-in-law. In Fairmount Dean grew up in





James Dean.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

his aunt and uncle's rural Quaker home, helping with farm chores and enjoying a reasonably carefree existence. He enjoyed swimming and ice-skating, and was interested in cars. He played guard on the high school basketball team and excelled at debate and drama.

### First acting roles

After graduating in 1949, Dean left for Los Angeles, California, and lived briefly with his father and stepmother. He entered Santa Monica City College, majoring in pre-law, but it was drama in which he shone. The following year he transferred to the University of California, Los Angeles. Befriended by

actor James Whitmore (1924–), Dean obtained a small part in a television drama, *Hill Number One*.

Soon Dean quit college and worked as a parking lot attendant, participating in auditions whenever they were available. In 1951, after landing only bit parts and a small role in *Fixed Bayonets*, a war picture, he left Hollywood for New York. There, in 1953, he landed a spot in the Actors Studio run by Lee Strasberg (1901–1982).

Dean obtained a small part in *See the Jaguar*, which opened at the Cort Theatre on Broadway in 1952. After this his career took off. He did television plays and several more Broadway productions. He also developed a reputation for being talented but hard to work with. Television required precise coordination of cameras and actors. However, Dean was either unable or unwilling to repeat a gesture, move, or speech the same way. Despite this he won the Daniel Blum Theatre World Award for “best newcomer” of the 1953 to 1954 season for his role in *The Immoralist*.

### Three movies

In March 1954 director Elia Kazan (1909–), who knew Dean from Actors Studio days, offered him a role in the film *East of Eden*. Dean was picked for two more parts. He finished filming *Rebel Without a Cause*, with Sal Mineo (1939–1976) and Natalie Wood (1938–1981) in June 1955 and began work on *Giant*. He costarred in this movie with Elizabeth Taylor (1932–) and Rock Hudson (1925–1985). Filming of *Giant* was completed in September and Dean was to start rehearsing for a new play, *The Corn Is Green*. But Dean had a few days free time in which he decided to do some car racing.

Dean had bought a Porsche Spyder, which he planned to race in Salinas, California. On September 30, he and his mechanic, Rolf Wuetherich, were involved in a head-on collision at Paso Robles, California. Dean died in the crash. He was buried in Fairmount, Indiana, on October 8, 1955. Three thousand people attended his funeral.

Less than a month later, *Rebel Without a Cause* opened in New York City and the Dean legend began. Warner Brothers received mountains of mail. Young people all over the world considered Dean a symbol of their frustrations. In 1956 he was nominated for Best Actor Oscars for his roles in *East of Eden* and *Giant*. He also received numerous foreign awards, including the French Crystal Star award and the Japanese Million Pearl award. By June 1956 there were dozens of fan clubs, and rumors flourished that Dean was not dead, only severely injured.

Many who acted with Dean thought he had exceptional talent. Perhaps the most enduring part of James Dean's legend is the belief that beauty is ultimately destroyed by violence. That legend is kept alive by numerous books and a festival in Fairmount that more than fifty thousand people attend each year on the anniversary of his fatal accident.

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## CLAUDE DEBUSSY

**Born:** August 22, 1862

**St-Germain-en-Laye, France**

**Died:** March 25, 1918

**Paris, France**

*French composer*

The French composer (writer and arranger of music) Claude Debussy developed a strongly individual style and went against the methods of classical composing by using uncommon arrangements that created a new language of sound.

### **Early life**

Achille Claude Debussy was born on August 22, 1862, in St-Germain-en-Laye, France. He was the oldest of five children. His father, Manuel-Achille Debussy, ran a china shop and had a hard time making ends meet. Debussy began taking piano lessons at age seven and entered the Paris Conservatory (school of fine arts) in Paris, France, at the age of ten. His instructors and fellow students recognized that he had talent, but they thought some of his attempts to create new sounds were odd. In 1880 Nadezhda von Meck, who had helped support Russian composer Peter Ilich Tchaikovsky (1840–1893),



Claude Debussy.

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hired Debussy to teach her children piano. He traveled to Italy and Austria with her and her family and spent parts of the next two years at her estate in Russia.

### ***Different musical influences***

In 1884 Debussy won the Prix de Rome, a competition for composers, for his cantata (a poem set to music) *The Prodigal Son*. While in Rome, Italy, the following year, he wrote that one of the few things that made him forget how much he missed Paris was the study of German composer Richard Wagner's (1813–1883) opera *Tristan und Isolde*. (Debussy returned to Paris in 1887.)

Not many years later Debussy strongly criticized Wagner, but this had more to do with Wagner's drama than his music. Although Debussy scorned the characters in Wagner's *Parsifal*, he openly praised the music. Throughout his life Debussy was fascinated by the richness of Wagner's style, although he generally preferred opera that was less flashy.

Debussy was also strongly affected by the Javanese gamelan, which he saw performed at the Paris World Exposition of 1889. This orchestra, with its variety of bells, gongs, and xylophones (instruments made up of a series of wooden bars that sound different notes when struck with two small hammers), produced a series of soft effects and rhythms that Debussy loved. The years between 1890 and 1900 brought the elements of the gamelan into play with others already present in Debussy's style and produced a new kind of sound. The completion of this process around 1900 can serve as a line dividing the masterpieces of the earlier years—*Ariettes oubliées* (1888), *Prélude à l'après-midi d'un faune* (1892; *Afternoon of a Faun*), and the *String Quartet* (1893)—from those composed during Debussy's mature period.

### ***Mature period***

Debussy's first large-scale piece of his mature period, the *Nocturnes* for orchestra (1893–99), was produced while he was working on his only completed opera, *Pelléas et Mélisande* (1894–1902), based on a play by Maurice Maeterlinck (1862–1949). The publicity surrounding the first performance of *Pelléas* in 1902 made Debussy the most controversial (causing disputes) musical figure in France; people either loved his music or

hated it. *Pelléas* is the key work of Debussy's creative life; the words and actions of the opera pass as if in a dream, but the dream is filled with a strong feeling of dread. Debussy adds to this feeling with music that is largely quiet, with outbursts thrown in that reveal the underlying terror.

In 1904 Debussy left his wife of five years, Rosalie Texier, to live with Emma Bardac, a woman who had a decent amount of money and whom he would eventually marry. Debussy became more productive after he no longer had to worry about how he was going to earn money. During these years he wrote some of his most lasting works: *La Mer* (1905) and *Ibéria* (1908), both for orchestra; *Images* (1905), *Children's Corner Suite* (1908), and two books of *Préludes* (1910–12), all for piano solo.

### Later years

Debussy's pieces of the following years show certain changes in style. They have less immediate appeal and are more difficult to approach. The emergence of other composers also led to declining interest in his works. His ballet *Jeux*, his last and most complicated orchestral score, first performed on May 15, 1913, was all but forgotten after Igor Stravinsky's (1882–1971) ballet *Rite of Spring* came out on May 29. Debussy may have resented the younger composer's arrival on the scene, but he admired Stravinsky's work and even used certain Stravinsky-like elements in *En blanc et noir* (1915) and the *Études* (1915).

When Debussy composed these works, he was already suffering from terminal cancer. He completed only three of a planned group of six pieces "for various instruments" (1915–17) before dying in Paris on March 25, 1918.

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## RUBY D E E

**Born:** October 27, 1924

**Cleveland, Ohio**

*African American actress*

Ruby Dee's acting career has spanned more than fifty years and has included theater, radio, television, and movies. She has also been active in the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), and the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE).

### The early years

Ruby Dee was born Ruby Ann Wallace on October 27, 1924, in Cleveland, Ohio. Her parents, Marshall and Emma Wallace, moved the family to Harlem in New York City when Dee was just a baby. In the evening Dee, her two sisters, and her brother



Ruby Dee.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

read aloud to each other from the poetry of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807–1882), William Wordsworth (1770–1850), and Paul Laurence Dunbar (1872–1906). As a teenager Dee submitted poetry to the *New York Amsterdam News*, a black weekly newspaper. Later in life, Dee admitted that during those years she was a shy girl but that she always felt a burning desire to express herself.

#### **Pursued education**

Dee's love of English and poetry motivated her to study the arts. She attended Hunter High School, one of New York's first-rate schools that drew the brightest girls.

While in high school, Dee decided to pursue acting.

After graduation Dee entered Hunter College. There she joined the American Negro Theater (ANT) and adopted the stage name Ruby Dee. While still at Hunter College, Dee took a class in radio training offered through the American Theater Wing. This training led to a part in the radio serial *Nora Drake*. After college Dee worked as a French and Spanish translator. She knew, however, that the theater was to be her destiny.

#### **First Broadway role**

In 1946 Dee got her first Broadway role in *Jeb*, a drama about a returning African American war hero. There she met Ossie Davis, the actor in the title role. They became close friends and were married on December 9, 1948.

Dee's first movie was *Love in Syncopation*, released in 1946. In 1950 she appeared in *The Jackie Robinson Story* and in *No Way Out*. In 1957 Dee appeared in *Edge of the City*. Over the next decade, Dee appeared in several plays and movies including *A Raisin in the Sun* and Davis's play *Purlie Victorious*. In 1965 Ruby Dee became the first African American actress to appear in major roles at the American Shakespeare Festival in Stratford, Connecticut. Her musical satire *Take It from the Top* opened in New York in 1979.

Beginning in the early 1960s, Dee made numerous appearances on television including roles in the *Play of the Week* and in several series. In 1968 she became the first African American actress to be featured on *Peyton Place*. In 1970 she starred in the critically acclaimed play *Boesman and Lena*.

### **Promoting black heritage**

Dee and Davis collaborated on several projects designed to promote black heritage in general and other black artists in particular. In 1974 they produced *The Ruby Dee/Ossie Davis Story Hour* for the National Black Network. In 1981 they produced the series *With Ossie and Ruby* for the Public Broadcasting System (PBS).

Dee found this work particularly satisfying because she got to travel the country talking to authors and others who could put the black experience in perspective. She believes that the series made black people look at themselves outside of the problems of racism (believing that one race is superior to another race).

### **Took up civil rights causes**

Issues of equality and civil rights have long been a concern of Dee's. In 1953 she became well-known for denouncing (openly expressing strong disapproval) the U.S. government's decision to execute Julius and Ethel Rosenberg for wartime spying. This experience helped Dee realize that racism and discrimination (treating people differently based on race, gender, or nationality) were not exclusively black experiences.

Dee and Davis were involved in and supported several other civil rights protests and causes, including Martin Luther King Jr.'s 1963 March on Washington. In 1970 the National Urban League honored them with the Frederick Douglass Award for distinguished leadership toward equal opportunity.

In 1999 Dee and Davis were arrested for protesting the fatal shooting of an unarmed West African immigrant, Amadou Diallo, by

white police officers of the New York City Police Department.

### **Other achievements**

Dee's remarkable acting talent has endured over the years. Director Spike Lee cast Dee in his 1989 film *Do the Right Thing*. In 1990 Dee appeared in the television movie *The Court Martial of Jackie Robinson*. In 1991 Dee won an Emmy for *Decoration Day*, and in 1994 she appeared in the television movie version of Stephen King's *The Stand*.

Dee also has established the Ruby Dee Scholarship in Dramatic Art. The scholarship is awarded to talented young black women who want to become established in the acting profession. In 1988 *Ebony* magazine featured Dee and Davis as one of "Three Great Love Stories." Both she and Davis donate money and countless hours of time to causes in which they believe.

On March 11, 2001, Dee and Davis received the Lifetime Achievement Award from the Screen Actors Guild. At that time, they had been married and worked together for fifty-two years.

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# DANIEL DEFOE

**Born:** 1660

**London, England**

**Died:** April 24, 1731

**London, England**

*English writer, journalist, and poet*

**D**aniel Defoe was the first of the great eighteenth-century English novelists. He wrote more than five hundred books, pamphlets, articles, and poems.

## *Education, marriage, and early career*

Little is known about the birth and early childhood of Daniel Defoe, as no baptism record exists for him. It is likely that he was born in London, England, in 1660. James Foe, his father, was a butcher by trade and also a Protestant Presbyterian (considered to be a person who thought differently and did not believe in or belong to the Church of England). (Daniel Defoe added the De to his original last name Foe when he was forty.) He had a sister, Elizabeth, who was born a year earlier. When he was ten, his mother died. He had early thoughts of becoming a Presbyterian minister, and in the 1670s he attended the Reverend Charles Morton's famous academy near London.

In 1684 Defoe married Mary Tuffley, who brought him the handsome dowry of 3,700 pounds. They had seven children. Defoe participated briefly in the Monmouth Rebellion of 1685, a Protestant uprising, but escaped capture and punishment. From 1685 through 1692 he engaged in trade in London as a wholesale hosiery agent, an importer of

wine and tobacco, and part owner and insurer of ships.

Defoe evidently did business with King William III (1650–1702). He suffered losses from underwriting marine insurance for the king and was forced to declare bankruptcy in 1692. Although he settled with the people to whom he owed money in 1693, he faced the threat of bankruptcy throughout his life and faced imprisonment for debt and libel (the crime of writing or publishing untrue statements that harm other people) seven times.

## *Journalist and secret agent*

Arrested in 1703 for having published *The Shortest Way with the Dissenters* in 1702, Defoe was tried and sentenced, put before public abuse, and taken to prison. Robert Walpole (1676–1745) released him five months later and offered him a post as a government agent. Defoe continued to serve the government as journalist, pamphleteer, and secret agent for the remainder of his life. The most long-lived of his twenty-seven periodicals, the *Review* (1704–1713), was especially influential in promoting the union between England and Scotland in 1706 and 1707 and in supporting the controversial Peace of Utrecht of 1713 (one of the greatest peace settlements in history that balanced power in Europe).

## *His nonfiction—essays, poems*

Defoe published hundreds of political and social documents between 1704 and 1719. His interests and activities reflect the major social, political, economic, and literary trends of his age. He supported the policies of William III and Mary after the Glorious Revolution of 1688 and 1689, and analyzed England's growth as the major sea and mercantile

(having to do with merchandise and trade) power in the Western world. He pleaded for sympathy for debtors and defended the rights of Protestant dissenters (people who opposed the beliefs of the Church of England). He used newspapers and journals to make his points.

His first major work, *An Essay upon Projects* (1697), proposed ways of providing better roads, insurance, and education to be supported by “a Tax upon Learning, to be paid by the Authors of Books.” Many of these topics reappeared in his later works.

In 1701 Defoe published *The True-Born Englishman*, the most widely sold poem in English up to that time. He estimated that more than eighty thousand copies of this defense of William III against the attacks of John Tutchin were sold. Although Defoe’s *The Shortest Way with the Dissenters* (1702), which ridiculed the harshness of the Church of England, led to his arrest, the popularity of his *Hymn to the Pillory* (1703) indicated the favor that he had found with the London public.

## Robinson Crusoe

At the age of fifty-nine, after a full career as businessman, government servant, political pamphleteer, and journalist, Defoe began a career as novelist. Within six years he produced six novels, all of which gave him his greatest fame.

In 1719 Defoe published his most lasting work, *The Life and Strange Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe*. The success of the story inspired Defoe to write *The Farther Adventures of Robinson Crusoe* later in 1719 and *Serious Reflections during the Life and Surprising*



Daniel Defoe.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

*Adventures* in 1720. That year he published another travel novel, *The Life, Adventures, and Pyracies of the Famous Captain Singleton*.

## Other major fiction

Defoe published comparatively little in 1721, because he was hard at work on the three major books that were to appear the following year. In January 1722 he published *The Fortunes and Misfortunes of the Famous Moll Flanders*, probably the most successful of his novels. *A Journal of the Plague Year*, issued in March 1722, presented a picture of life in London during the Great Plague of 1665; it was thought to be history rather than fiction



for more than a hundred years. His third novel, *The History and Remarkable Life of the Truly Honourable Col. Jacque*, was published in December 1722.

In 1724 and 1725 Defoe published four successful books, each displaying his characteristically clear, strong English words. *The Fortunate Mistress; or, . . . Roxana* was the first of three in 1724. The second, *A Tour Thro' the Whole Island of Great Britain* was one of the most thorough guidebooks of the period, and the third, *The History of the Remarkable Life of John*, was one of his finest criminal biographies. *The True and Genuine Account of the Life and Actions of the Late Jonathan Wild* was the fourth book, published in 1725.

### Last Works and death

Although he continued to write, only a few of Defoe's later works are worthy of note: *The Complete English Tradesman* (1725), *The Political History of the Devil* (1726), *A New Family Instructor* (1727), and *Augusta Triumphans* (1728), which was Defoe's plan to make "London the most flourishing City in the Universe."

Daniel Defoe died at age seventy-one on April 24, 1731, outside of London, England.

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## EDGAR DE GAS

**Born:** July 19, 1834

**Paris, France**

**Died:** September 27, 1917

**Paris, France**

*French artist, painter, and sculptor*

The French painter and sculptor Edgar Degas is classed with the impressionists (a painter who tries to represent a scene using dabs and strokes of paint) because of his concentration on scenes of contemporary life and his desire to capture the transitory (lasting a short time) moment, but he surpassed other impressionists in compositional (arrangement) sense.

### The early years

Hilaire German Edgar Degas was born on July 19, 1834, in Paris, France, the son of a well-to-do banker. From an early age Edgar loved books, especially the classics, and was a serious student in high school. He was very attached to his younger brother, René, and he would later paint his image repeatedly. He was also fond of his mother, and her death when he was thirteen years old caused him much heartache. His father hoped Edgar would study law, but Edgar enrolled at the École des Beaux-Arts (School of Fine Arts) in 1855. Degas always valued this early classical

training. He had a great and enduring admiration for Ingres (1780–1867), a painter with a decisively linear orientation (characterized by a reliance on simple lines and brushstrokes).

In 1856 Degas went to Italy and settled in Rome for three years. He admired the early Christian and medieval masterpieces of Italy, as well as the frescoes (paintings done on fresh plaster), panel paintings, and drawings of the Renaissance (a period in Italy from roughly the fourteenth century until the seventeenth century that was marked by a renewed interest in the arts) masters. He copied many of these. At that time this was a common way of studying art.

Back in Paris in 1861, Degas executed a few history paintings (a painting that depicts a historical event; then regarded as the highest branch of painting). Among these was the *Daughter of Jephthah* (1861), which is based on an episode from the Old Testament in the Bible. He copied the works of the old masters (the well-regarded painters of the Renaissance) in the Louvre (a famous art museum in Paris). His reputation as a painter had already been established prior to the 1870s.

From 1862 until 1870 Degas painted portraits of his friends and family. In 1870, during the Franco-Prussian War (a conflict between France and the German state of Prussia), he served in the artillery (the part of the army that deals with weaponry) of the national guard. Degas stopped exhibiting at the respected Salon in 1874 and instead displayed his works with those of the less well-established impressionists until 1886. Although he was associated with the impressionists, his preoccupation with drawing and composition was not characteristic of the group.



Edgar Degas.

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### Portraits

Portraiture (the creation of portraits) was more important for Degas than for any of the other impressionists. Some of his portraits are among the best produced in Western art since the Renaissance. Examples include *The Belleli Family* (1859), *Head of a Young Woman* (1867), *Diego Martelli* (1879), and *Estelle Musson* (1872–73).

### Depiction of the modern scene

By 1870 Degas drew his characters from the contemporary Parisian scene, especially the ballet, theater, and racetrack. Usually he

depicted ballerinas off guard, showing them backstage at an awkward moment as they fastened a slipper or drooped, exhausted, after a difficult practice session. Degas fits easily within the impressionist movement in producing art of immediacy (directness) and spontaneity (being unprepared or unplanned). But the placement of each detail is calculated in terms of every other to establish balances that are remarkably clever and subtle.

Degas thought of the human figure as a prop to be manipulated to achieve more interesting paintings. He was inspired by Japanese prints to create unusual poses and cut off figures in unusual ways. In *A Carriage at the Races* (1873) the figure in the carriage to the left is cut nearly down the middle. Had Degas shown more of this figure, an obvious and uninteresting symmetry (arrangement that is similar on both sides) would have been set up with the larger carriage in the right foreground.

### Degas's techniques

In copying the old masters, Degas sometimes attempted to uncover their techniques. For example, when he copied Andrea Mantegna (1431–1506), Degas tried to copy Mantegna's method of building up the canvas with layers of cool and warm tones by using a series of glazes (thin, smooth, shiny coats).

From the mid-1870s Degas worked increasingly in pastel (pale, light crayons). In his last years, when his sight was failing, he abandoned oil completely in favor of pastel, which he handled more broadly and with greater freedom than before. Pastel, for the most part an eighteenth-century medium, helped Degas produce qualities of airiness and lightness, as in the *Ballerina and Lady*

with *Fan* (1885). However, Degas experimented with unusual combinations of mediums in producing his colors and prints.

### Bronze sculptures

After 1866 Degas created bronze statues of horses and dancers, up to three or four feet high. His bronze and painted wax figures of dancers, like the *Little Dancer of Fourteen Years* (1880–81), are often clothed in real costumes. Degas again catches the dancers as they are about to change position. As in the paintings, Degas strips the dancers of glamour and sometimes reveals them as scrawny adolescents.

Beginning in the mid-1870s Degas suffered from failing eyesight. From the 1890s on, he became more and more of a recluse (one who lives in isolation). In the last years of his life he was almost totally blind, and he wandered aimlessly through the Parisian streets. He died on September 27, 1917, in Paris.

Degas was interested in combining the discipline apparent in classical art with the direct expression of contemporary life that characterized the impressionists. However, he did not share the impressionists' focus on light and color. He emphasized composition, line, and form. He is regarded as one of the greatest French artists, influencing later artists such as Toulouse-Lautrec (1864–1901) and Pablo Picasso (1811–1973).

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## CHARLES DE GAULLE

**Born:** November 23, 1890

**Lille, France**

**Died:** November 9, 1970

**Colombey-les-Deux-Églises, France**

*French premier, general, and president*

**T**he French general and statesman Charles de Gaulle led the Free French forces in their resistance of Germany during World War II (1939–45). A talented writer and spirited public speaker, he served as president of France from 1958 to 1969.

### *Early life and inspirations*

Charles André Joseph Marie de Gaulle was born on November 23, 1890, in the northern industrial city of Lille, France. His father, Henri, was a teacher of philosophy and mathematics and a veteran of the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71), in which Prussia (today known as Germany) humiliatingly defeated the French. This loss colored the life of de Gaulle's father, a patriot who vowed he would live to avenge the defeat and win back the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. His attitude deeply influenced the lives of his sons, whom he groomed to aid in France's restoration to the greatest European power.

From his earliest years, both his father and mother immersed de Gaulle in French history. For many centuries de Gaulle's ancestors had played a role in French history, almost always as patriots defending France from invaders. In the fourteenth century, a Chevalier de Gaulle defeated an invading English army in defense of the city of Vire. Jean de Gaulle is cited in the Battle of Agincourt (1415).

Perhaps the major influence on de Gaulle's formation came from his uncle, also named Charles de Gaulle, who wrote a book about the Celts, the ancient people of western Europe. The book called for union of the Breton, Scots, Irish, and Welsh peoples. The young de Gaulle wrote in his copybook a sentence from his uncle's book, which proved to be a prediction of his future life: "In a camp, surprised by enemy attack under cover of night, where each man is fighting alone, in dark confusion, no one asks for the grade or rank of the man who lifts up the standard and makes the first call to rally for resistance."

### *Military career*

De Gaulle's career as defender of France began in the summer of 1909, when he was admitted to the elite military academy of Saint-Cyr. Among his classmates was the future marshal of France, Alphonse Juin (1888–1967), who later recalled de Gaulle's nicknames in school—"The Grand Constable" and "The Big Asparagus" (because of his height).

After graduation, in October 1912, Second Lieutenant de Gaulle reported to Henri Philippe Pétain, who first became his idol and later his most hated enemy. (In World War I [1914–18] Pétain was the hero of Ver-



Charles de Gaulle.

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dun. During World War II [1941–45] he surrendered to German leader Adolf Hitler [1889–1945] and collaborated with the Germans while de Gaulle was leading the French forces of liberation.)

De Gaulle led a frontline company as captain in World War I and was cited three times for valor, or courage. Severely wounded, he was left for dead on the battlefield of Verdun and was later imprisoned by the Germans when he revived in a graveyard cart. After he had escaped and been recaptured several times, the Germans put him in a maximum security prison-fortress.

### ***Between wars***

After the war de Gaulle went to general-staff school, where he damaged his career by constantly criticizing his superiors. He criticized the concept of trench warfare and wrote a series of essays calling for a strategy of movement with armored tanks and planes. His superiors ignored his works. The Germans, however, did read him and adapted his theories to develop their triumphant strategy of *blitzkrieg*, or lightning war, with which they defeated the French in 1940.

When France fell, de Gaulle, then an unknown brigadier general (a military officer above a colonel), refused to surrender. He fled to London, convinced that the British would never surrender and that American power, once committed, would win the war. On June 18, 1940, on British Broadcasting Company (BBC), he insisted that France had only lost a battle, not the war, and called upon patriotic Frenchmen to resist the Germans. This inspiring broadcast won him worldwide honor.

### ***Early political activity***

When the Germans were driven back at Normandy in 1944, de Gaulle had no rivals for leadership in France. Therefore, in the fall of that year, all of the members of the French Parliament agreed in their vote and elected him premier. De Gaulle had fiercely opposed the German enemy, and now he vigorously defended France against the influence of his powerful allies Joseph Stalin (1879–1953) of Russia, Winston Churchill (1874–1965) of Great Britain, and Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945) of the United States. De Gaulle once stated that he never feared Hitler, who he knew was doomed to defeat. He did, however, fear that his allies would dominate France and Europe in the postwar period.

By the fall of 1945, only a year after assuming power, de Gaulle was at odds with all of the political leaders of France. He saw himself as the unique savior of France, the only champion of French honor, grandeur, and independence. He despised all politicians as corrupt and only out for their self-interests. The politicians then banded against him. In January 1946, disgusted by politics, he resigned and retreated into a silence to ponder the future of France.

In 1947 de Gaulle reemerged as leader of the opposition. He headed what he termed "The Rally of the French People," which he insisted was not a political party but a national movement. The Rally became the largest single political force in France but never achieved majority status. Although de Gaulle continued to disagree with the political system, he refused to lead a coup d'état, or a sudden overthrow of the government. He retired again in 1955.

### ***Years as president***

In May 1958, a combination of French colonials and militarists seized power in Algeria and threatened to invade France. The weakened Fourth Republic collapsed, and the victorious rebels called de Gaulle back to power as president of the Fifth Republic of France. From June 1958 to April 1969 he reigned as the dominant force in France.

As president de Gaulle fought every plan to involve France deeply in alliances. He opposed the formation of a United States of Europe and British entry into the Common Market. He stopped paying part of France's dues to the United Nations, forced the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) headquarters to leave France, and pulled French forces out of the Atlantic Alliance integrated armies.

De Gaulle had an early success in stimulating (to make excitable) pride in Frenchmen and in increasing French gold reserves and strengthening the economy. By the end of his reign, however, France was almost friendless, and his economic gains had been all but wiped out by the student and workers protest movement in spring 1968.

De Gaulle ruled supreme for eleven years, but his firm hand began to anger many citizens. In April 1969 the French voted against his program for reorganizing the Senate and the regions of France. Immediately afterwards de Gaulle resigned and remained silent on political issues. Charles de Gaulle died at Colombey-les-Deux-Églises on November 9, 1970.

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**F. W.**  
**DE KLERK**

**Born:** March 18, 1936

**Johannesburg, South Africa**

*South African president and politician*

**F**. W. de Klerk was state president of South Africa from 1989 to 1994. He pointed his country in a new direction and was awarded the 1993 Nobel Peace Prize for his work to end apartheid (an official policy that virtually eliminated black African participation in government in South Africa).

### ***Brief overview of South African history***

Fredrik Willem de Klerk's actions as president went against a long tradition in Africa of using force to keep people down, and where control by foreign countries offered limited freedoms to the native peoples. In the early nineteenth century, England seized control from the Dutch of the Cape Colony at the southern tip of Africa. The Dutch-speaking inhabitants were removed from power and influenced by English-speaking settlers. British rule angered many Dutch in its more liberal treatment of African people. Between 1836 and 1838, several thousand Dutch Boers (farmers) left the Cape Colony to establish new societies in the interior of South Africa, beyond the reach of British authority.

This mass emigration, known as the Great Trek, created two sorts of enemies for the Dutch, who began calling themselves Afrikaners. The first enemy was the British, from whose power they were attempting to escape. The second was a number of powerful black African states, the Zulu being the best known, whose lands they were invading. During the next 150 years, the Afrikaners struggled against both. By the 1960s the Afrikaners seemed to have triumphed with the election of a purely Afrikaner National Party government in 1948. As a result South Africa withdrew from the British Commonwealth in 1960.

### ***National Party established apartheid***

The National Party's policy of apartheid appeared to have ended the black African threat by the mid-1960s. But black protest revived in the 1970s and there were strikes by black workers, the uprising of school children in 1976, and intensified attacks by the African National Congress (ANC). Additionally there was a growing trend by people in other countries to isolate South Africa economically, which put intense pressure on the Nationalist government.

Largely because they had been denied any role in the new constitution, black Africans rose again in 1984. Demonstrations and riots were ruthlessly suppressed or ended. Killings increased, rising into the thousands by 1986. President Pieter W. Botha (1916–) eased some “petty apartheid” laws, but left the system's basic structure intact. He declared a state of emergency, which suspended what civil liberties were left and led to the detention, without trial, of perhaps thousands of black and white dissidents (those who publicly disagreed with the government's policies). South Africa's economy suffered enormously and the Rand, the basis of the currency, lost nearly two-thirds of its value. But Botha maintained his resistance to fundamental change. Into this situation stepped F. W. de Klerk.

### ***De Klerk's early years***

De Klerk was born on March 18, 1936, in Johannesburg, South Africa. His uncle, Johannes G. Strijdom, a prime minister of South Africa in the 1950s, had installed many apartheid laws. De Klerk attended Potchefstroom University, a center of Afrikaner

nationalist thought. In 1972, while teaching law, he was elected to Parliament, South Africa's governing body, and represented the town of Vereeniging. All this activity was in the province of Transvaal, a focal point of Afrikaner political power and the location of most of the mineral wealth that is the basis of the South African economy.

He joined the cabinet (close political advisors) of Prime Minister Balthazar Johannes Vorster (1915–1983) in 1978. During the next two decades, de Klerk served many offices, including minister of post and telecommunications and minister of sports and recreation. De Klerk eventually became the chief of the Transvaal branch of the party.

### ***De Klerk as party leader***

In January of 1989 Botha suffered a stroke that forced him to resign as head of the National Party. Though Botha remained state president, de Klerk replaced him as party leader. An extraordinary episode occurred in August when de Klerk, without Botha's knowledge, announced a meeting to talk about the South African situation with Zambia's president Kenneth Kaunda. Botha publicly criticized de Klerk and then suddenly resigned the presidency. De Klerk became state president, which set the stage for the extraordinary events of February 11, 1990.

At the outset of his presidency, de Klerk seemed to associate himself less with the security and military branches of the government and more with the economic and foreign policy offices, which are more interested in South Africa's standing overseas. Then there was de Klerk's undoubted loyalty to the National Party. As South Africa faced hard



*F. W. de Klerk.*

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times in the 1980s, so did the party. Even Botha believed that South Africa must "adapt or die." His halting steps toward reform split the party between those who wanted to strengthen and those who wanted to reform apartheid. Having inherited this division, de Klerk may have believed that the way to save the party was to attract reformers, many of them English-speaking, who had previously supported other groups.

### ***Freeing Mandela***

Few were prepared for the dramatic news of February 11, 1990, when de Klerk announced the release of Nelson Mandela



(1918–), the South African resistance leader, from prison after spending twenty-seven years there. This was a major step in ending apartheid in South Africa.

On May 7, 1990, de Klerk and a government delegation had their first formal meeting with Mandela and representatives of the ANC, whom the government had once considered terrorists. Both leaders reported the meeting to have been friendly, and each stated his regard for the integrity of the other. Both leaders were well aware that years of repression had produced many dangerous forces that could at any time damage the results of that meeting and its hope for South Africa's future. De Klerk's role as the catalyst in changing the course of South Africa's history seemed secure. Additional evidence came on September 24, 1990, when at a meeting with President George Bush (1924–) he became the first South African head of state to visit the White House.

#### ***De Klerk became second vice president***

De Klerk worked with Mandela to abolish apartheid and grant constitutional voting rights to all South Africans. In 1993 the two shared the Nobel Peace Prize. In April 1994 they saw their efforts pay off as they campaigned against each other in the first all-race election in South Africa. In this election, with black South Africans casting the majority vote, Mandela became the first black president of South Africa. De Klerk became the second vice president in Mandela's Government of National Unity.

In 1996 the government adopted a new constitution that guaranteed equal rights. De Klerk was concerned, however, that the constitution would not protect minority group

rights. The National Party, still led by him, broke away from Mandela, saying that South Africa needed a strong multi-party system.

In August 1997 de Klerk resigned as head of the National Party and stepped out of politics. At the news conference, he stated, "I am resigning because I am convinced it is in the best interest of the party and the country."

In October 1998 the South Africa Truth and Reconciliation Commission announced that it would release a report about crimes that were committed during apartheid and that this report would not include any mention of questionable activities that de Klerk may have been involved in. The commission works to bring south Africans together by investigating and reporting on events that occurred during apartheid.

In December 2001, de Klerk joined more than thirty other Nobel Prize winners in Oslo, Norway to celebrate the prize's one-hundredth anniversary and to discuss peace in the twenty-first century.

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## CECIL B. DE MILLE

**Born:** August 12, 1881

**Ashfield, Massachusetts**

**Died:** January 21, 1959

**Laughlin Park, California**

*American director and producer*

Considered one of the founders of Hollywood, film producer and director Cecil B. DeMille became famous for large-scale religious films such as *The Ten Commandments* and *King of Kings*.

### ***Theater background***

Cecil Blount DeMille was born on August 12, 1881, in Ashfield, Massachusetts, the second of Henry Churchill de Mille and Beatrice Samuel DeMille's three children. His father wrote several successful plays with David Belasco (1853–1931), a famous writer of that time. Actors and actresses often came to the DeMille house to rehearse scenes. When DeMille was twelve, his father died; his mother made money by turning their home into a school for girls. Cecil attended Pennsylvania Military College and studied acting at the Academy of Dramatic Arts in New York, New York. After graduation he worked as an actor for ten years. He married Constance Adams, an actress, in 1902. They had one child and adopted three more.

### ***The man who founded Hollywood***

When DeMille was almost thirty, he met Jesse L. Lasky, who was trying to break into motion picture production. DeMille was thinking of leaving show business altogether,

but Lasky convinced him to try directing a film. After spending a day at Thomas Edison's (1847–1931) studios in New York City, DeMille left for Arizona to shoot *The Squaw Man*, a drama based on a Broadway play that was set in Wyoming. When things did not work out in Arizona, DeMille got back on the train and headed to Los Angeles, California.

When DeMille arrived in California in 1913, he decided to stay, realizing it was perfect for motion picture making. The sunny weather enabled crews to shoot without having to set up lights, saving time and money. DeMille created the popular image of the big-shot movie director by dressing in an open-necked shirt, riding pants, and boots and by carrying a large megaphone (a cone-shaped device to increase the loudness of the voice) and a whistle around his neck. With the success of *The Squaw Man*, DeMille had found the perfect location to make movies, he had developed the fashion style that would come to be associated with movie-making, and he had proved he could direct successfully. By 1914 Lasky had moved his entire operation to California and set up a huge studio.

### ***Produced first epics***

In 1917 DeMille made his first epic (a work that is larger than usual in size or scope), *Joan the Woman*, the story of Joan of Arc (1412–1431), a saint of the Catholic Church. It was one of the longest pictures made up until that time and was not successful. Over the next few years several of DeMille's films were flops, including *The Whispering Chorus*, a film that meant a lot to him. DeMille began to concentrate on pleasing audiences with comedies such as *We Can't Have Everything* and *Don't Change Your Hus-*



Cecil B. DeMille.

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band, which contained both sexual and moral messages. Critics scoffed at these films, but they made money. DeMille also helped to set up the Hays Office, which cracked down on films containing sexual or immoral (socially wrong) content. DeMille worried that if Hollywood did not police itself, Congress would.

In 1923 DeMille decided to make another epic. The first version of *The Ten Commandments* was the most expensive movie made up to that time. In the end, though, it was a blockbuster, making its huge budget back several times over. DeMille continued making expensive epics, including *King of Kings* (1927). His first sound movie

was *Dynamite*, which did well; a musical, *Madame Satan*, did not. *The Crusades*, another one of his epics, was the largest failure in Hollywood history up to that time.

### End of his career

After World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis Powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allied Powers—England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), DeMille made *Samson and Delilah*, which was criticized for its poor special effects and scenes of heavy-breathing sexuality. In 1950 DeMille returned to acting, playing himself in *Sunset Boulevard*. In 1952 DeMille made *The Greatest Show on Earth*, a film often considered to be the closest thing to the story of his own life that he ever made. It was the first film he made that won an Oscar.

Cecil B. DeMille's final film, another version of *The Ten Commandments*, is his most widely seen work, thanks to Easter-time television programming, but it is not one of his most respected. Still, it was a huge success at the box office. DeMille suffered a heart attack while shooting *The Ten Commandments*, but he refused to slow down. Soon after, in 1959, he had another heart attack, which led to his death.

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## DENG XIAOPING

**Born:** August 22, 1904

Guangan, Sichuan Province, China

**Died:** February 19, 1997

Peking, China

*Chinese politician and leader*

Deng Xiaoping became the most powerful leader in the People's Republic of China (PRC) in the 1970s. He served as the chairman of the Communist Party's Military Commission and was the chief architect of China's economic improvements during the 1980s.

### Early life

Deng Xiaoping was born Deng Xixian in Guangan, Sichuan Province, on August 22, 1904. His parents were Deng Wenming, a relatively well-to-do landowner, and the second of his four wives, Deng Danshi. Deng grew up with one sister, two brothers, and the children of his father's other wives. He joined the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in 1924 while on a high school work-study program in France. (Communism is a political system where goods and services are controlled by the government.) Before returning to China in 1926 he went to Moscow, where he studied for several months.

During the fabled Long March of 1934 and 1935, when Communist Chinese traveled six thousand miles to set up a home in inland China, Deng served first as director of the political department. After the war with Japan began in 1937 Deng was appointed political commissar (party official) of the 129th Division. The force grew into a large military machine and became one of the four largest Communist army units during the war. It was renamed the Second Field Army in 1946 when the civil war began.

Deng rose quickly in the leadership hierarchy after his transfer to Peking, China, in 1952. He became CCP secretary-general in 1954 and a member of the Politburo (ruling party). During the Eighth CCP Congress in 1956 Deng was elevated to the six-man Politburo Standing Committee and appointed general secretary. By then, he had become one of the most powerful men in China.

### Exile and return

By many accounts Deng was an able, talented, and intelligent man. He was nicknamed "a living encyclopedia" by his peers. Chairman Mao Zedong (1893–1976), the creator of the People's Republic of China (PRC), pointed out Deng's abilities to Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971) of the Soviet Union, the former Communist country which consisted of Russia and other states. Deng visited the Soviet Union several times in the 1950s and the 1960s, as he was closely involved in Chinese-Soviet relations and their dispute over the international communist movement.

Mao and Deng parted ways in the 1960s as they disagreed over the strategy of eco-



*Deng Xiaoping.*

nomic development and other policies. Mao disapproved of Deng for making decisions without consulting him. In 1966 Mao launched the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution (GPCR) and mobilized the youthful Red Guards (the Communist army) to rid the party of “capitalist powerholders,” such as Deng. From 1969 to 1973, Deng and his family were exiled (forced to leave) to rural Jiangxi to undergo reeducation, during which time he performed manual labor and studied the writings of Mao and Karl Marx (1818–1893).

In the spring of 1973 Deng was brought back to Peking and reinstated as a vice-premier after a major realignment of political

forces. Deng’s ability and expertise were highly valued in the Chinese leadership, and he quickly assumed important roles. In late 1973 he carried out a major reorganization of regional military leaders and was elevated to the Politburo.

As Premier Chou Enlai was hospitalized after May 1974, leadership increasingly fell on Deng’s shoulders. In January 1975 Deng was elevated to a party vice-chairman, the senior vice-premier, and the army chief of staff. However, Deng’s eagerness to carry out political reforms (improvements) pushed away Mao and other radicals, and Deng was soon forced from power.

After Mao’s death in July 1977, Deng began his political comeback. His first task was to destroy Mao’s followers and to downgrade Mao’s lasting authority. Another powerful measure of de-Maoization was to put the “Gang of Four” on public trial, which began in Peking on November 20, 1980. These four radical leaders, including Mao’s widow Chiang Ch’ing, were the late chairman’s most devoted supporters. The trial symbolized the triumph of veteran officials, led by Deng, who had fallen victim to Mao’s radical changes between 1966 and 1976.

### ***Reform leader***

Deng’s economic policies required opening China to the rest of the world in order to attract foreign investment and to educate students abroad in the latest technologies. Accordingly, the PRC in 1978 signed a Treaty of Peace and Friendship with Japan. In 1979, Deng obtained the nation’s official recognition from the United States. Chinese-Soviet relations were gradually improved over the next decade, and he achieved the long-cher-

ished goal of recovering the British colony of Hong Kong through an agreement implemented in 1997.

When the Chinese economy began to crumble, Deng reduced investment in heavy industry, increased prices paid by the state to farmers, and arranged a series of bonuses to raise workers' incomes. Farmers were encouraged to sell more produce privately, and a rapid growth of free markets for farm produce occurred.

### ***Fought to maintain political stability***

Throughout these reforms, Deng insisted upon maintaining China's socialist system (a social system where the government produces and distributes goods to the people). The reforms Deng installed generally improved the quality of life but produced inequalities throughout China. In the 1980s the economy began to slip; unemployment increased and produced growing difference in living standards between the classes.

In 1979 some of Deng's supporters had openly opposed his dictatorship (one ruler with absolute power) and called for a democratic political system. Deng himself shut down this democracy movement by imprisoning some of their leaders, and banning unofficial organizations and publications. In December of 1986, widespread student demonstrations (protests) were shut down by the government.

Deng's insistence through the 1980s on maintaining China's socialist system while putting his economic reforms into place had by 1989 forced him into a corner. Focusing on demands for greater democracy (a government by the people), a series of student

demonstrations at Tiananmen Square occurred during Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev's (1931–) official state visit to Beijing and proved a serious embarrassment to China's leaders—one made worse by worldwide television coverage. The violence that followed on June 4, 1989, is believed to have killed hundreds of demonstrators in Beijing alone.

### ***Final years***

Worldwide criticism of the massacre in Tiananmen Square and the uneasy domestic peace that followed brought a tightening of controls over the Chinese people, but did not shake Deng from his dedication to the Communist Party's dictatorship. Recognizing his advanced age, Deng sought to continue his "open door" policy and other political and economic reforms by putting CCP General Secretary Hu Yaobang, Premier Zhao Ziyang, and many other younger officials in positions of responsibility. In November of 1989, Deng resigned his last official position as head of the Central Military Commission.

In his last years Deng started debate within the Communist Party on the need to balance economic reform with political stability. As Deng's health declined, he became further removed from his duties of daily decision-making. His last public appearance was during lunar new year festivities in early 1994, and on February 19, 1997, he died in Peking, China, at age ninety-two.

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## RENÉ DESCARTES

**Born:** March 31, 1596

**La Haye, France**

**Died:** February 11, 1650

**Stockholm, Sweden**

*French philosopher and writer*

The French thinker René Descartes is called the father of modern philosophy (the study of the universe and man's place in it). His *Discourse on Method and Meditations* defined the basic problems of philosophy for at least a century.

### Early life

René Descartes was born on March 31, 1596, in La Haye, France. His father, Joachim, served in the Parliament of Brittany, France. Jeanne Brochard Descartes, his mother, died in 1597. His father remarried and René and his older brother and sister were raised by their maternal grandmother and by a nurse for whom he retained a deep affection. In 1606 Descartes entered La Flèche, a religious college established for the education of the sons of noblemen. As a child he was often ill and was allowed to spend a portion of each day study-

ing in bed. He used this time for meditation and thought. According to Descartes's description of his eight-year course of studies at La Flèche, he often felt embarrassed at the extent of his own ignorance.

### Travel and study

After leaving college at age eighteen, Descartes earned a law degree in Poitiers, France. From 1618 to 1628 he traveled throughout Europe as a soldier. Living on income from inherited properties, Descartes served without pay and saw little action. He was present, however, at one of the major battles of the Thirty Years War (1618–48). Descartes sought out famous mathematicians, scientists, and philosophers (those who seek wisdom) wherever he traveled. The most significant of these friendships was with Isaac Beeckman, a Dutch mathematician, who encouraged Descartes to begin writing scientific theories on mathematics and music.

Descartes was deeply influenced by three dreams he had in 1619 in Ulm, Germany. He interpreted them to mean that all science is one and that its mastery is universal wisdom. This idea of the unity of all science was in opposition to the belief that the sciences were distinguished by their different objects of study. Descartes felt that if one could draw conclusions from a correct method of reasoning, then one could know everything. He began to devote his efforts to proving that he had discovered such a method. To focus better on his work, Descartes moved to Holland, where he lived peacefully for the next twenty years.

### First works

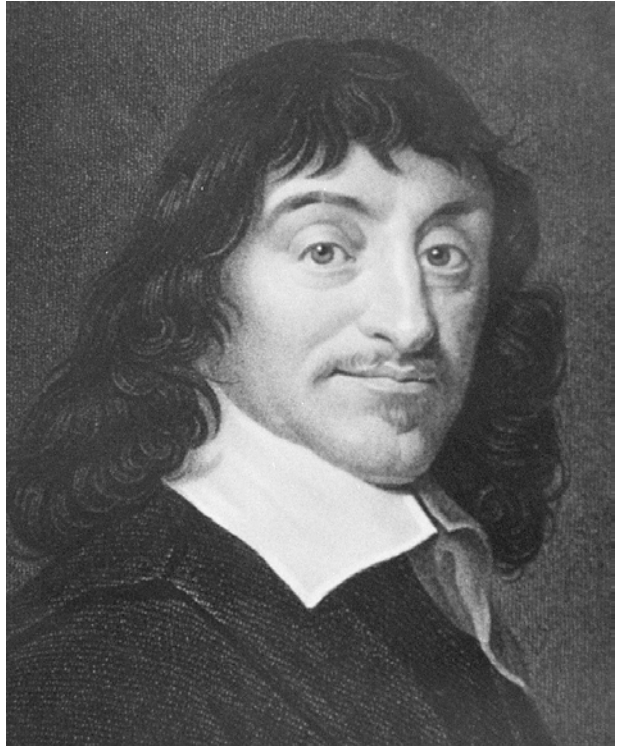
Descartes's first major work, *Rules for the Direction of the Mind*, was written by 1629 but

was not published until 1701. The work begins by assuming that man's knowledge has been limited by the belief that science is determined by the various objects of experience. The first rule therefore states that all true judgment depends on reason alone. For example, mathematical truths are valid even without observation and experiment. The second rule argues that the standard for true knowledge should be the certainty demanded of mathematical demonstrations. The third rule states that the mind should be influenced only by what can clearly be observed. The remaining rules are devoted to the explanation of these ideas or to showing their use in mathematical problems.

By 1634 Descartes had written *The World*, in which he supported several theories, including the idea of Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543) that Earth is not the center of the universe but revolves around the sun. Only fragments of the book survive, because when Descartes heard that a book published by Galileo (1564–1642), which also supported Copernicus, had been condemned by the Catholic Church, his fear of similar treatment led him to withdraw his work. In 1634 he also wrote the brief *Treatise on Man*, which attempted to explain human physiology (a branch of biology dealing with organs, tissues, and cells).

### Other works

In 1637 Descartes finished *Discourse on Method*, which uses a personal account of his education as an example of the need for a new method of study. Descartes also presents four rules for reducing any problem to its basics and then constructing solutions. In 1641 and 1642 *Meditations on First Philosophy*



René Descartes.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

appeared together with six sets of objections by other famous thinkers. The *Meditations* is one of the most famous books in the history of philosophy. While earlier Descartes works were concerned with explaining a method of thinking, this work applies that method to the problems of philosophy, including the convincing of doubters, the existence of the human soul, the nature of God, and the basis of truth.

The remainder of Descartes's career was spent defending his positions. In 1644 he published the *Principles of Philosophy*, which breaks down and expands the arguments of the earlier *Meditations*. In 1649 Descartes



accepted an invitation from Queen Christina of Sweden (1626–1689) to become her teacher. During this time he wrote *The Passions of the Soul*, which explains passion as a product of physical and chemical processes. The weather in Sweden caused Descartes's health to suffer, however, and after a brief illness he died in Stockholm in 1650.

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## HERNANDO DE SOTO

**Born:** c. 1496

**Jerez de los Caballeros, Spain**

**Died:** May 21, 1542

**Ferriday (now in Louisiana in the United States)**

*Spanish explorer*

The Spanish explorer Hernando de Soto participated in the conquests of Nicaragua (in Middle America) and Peru (in South America). De Soto explored parts of nine states in the southeastern part of the United States, and he was the first white man to cross the Mississippi River.

### **Born to explore**

Hernando de Soto was born sometime between 1496 and 1501 at Jerez de los Caballeros in the province of Estremadura, Spain. He was born into a family with minor nobility and little money as the second son of Francisco Mendez de Soto and Leonor Arias Tinoco. His education was limited; he was more interested in adventure and exploration. With little more than a sword and shield he sailed to Central America in 1514 with Pedro Arias de Ávila (c. 1440–1531), known as Pedrarias, who was about to become the governor of Panama.

As Pedrarias's lieutenant, de Soto was allowed to explore Central America in search of treasure and land. Among the areas he explored in the 1520s were modern Costa Rica and Honduras. De Soto conquered Nicaragua in 1524, and along with Hernan Ponce de Leon and Francisco Companon, he became a leading citizen of that country. De Soto was ambitious and wanted the chance to rule a country, but Pedrarias blocked his attempts to achieve more power in Nicaragua.

### **Fame and reward**

Sailing from Nicaragua in 1531, de Soto joined Francisco Pizarro (1471–1541) in the conquest of Peru, becoming an important figure in the fight. He was the first Spaniard to

meet the Inca leader Atahualpa (c. 1500–1533), who had led the victory of a recent civil war in Peru. Atahualpa had great wealth, and he gave many gifts to de Soto. Pizarro later had Atahualpa killed while de Soto was on a scouting mission. Although de Soto emerged from the conquest with a reputation as a skilled horseman and “one of the four bravest captains who had gone to the West Indies,” he was upset that Pizarro had killed Atahualpa. He also felt he would never be given the opportunity to provide leadership to a country.

With fame and a fortune of 100 thousand pesos in gold, de Soto returned to Spain in 1536, where he married Isabella de Bobadilla, one of Pedrarias’s daughters. De Soto was very interested in starting up a new expedition. He got his chance when Emperor Charles V of Spain (1500–1558) rewarded him for his efforts in Peru with a title as governor of Cuba and the authority to explore, conquer, and set up colonies (at his own expense) in the entire region that is now the southern part of the United States. De Soto returned to Cuba in 1538, where he assumed the governorship and prepared for his expedition to Florida.

### *An explorer until the end*

Hoping to find another Peru, de Soto and 620 men landed south of modern Tampa Bay, Florida, on May 30, 1539. His party encountered a man named Juan Ortiz, a survivor of an earlier failed expedition to Florida, who had lived among the Indians for twelve years. With Ortiz acting as interpreter, de Soto began his search for treasure and an advanced Indian civilization. Marching up the west coast of Florida, he spent the winter near the



*Hernando de Soto.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

present site of Tallahassee. In 1540 de Soto resumed the march through Georgia. At the Savannah River he met an Indian woman who offered him a long string of pearls and told him more could be found in nearby burial grounds. After collecting 350 pounds of pearls, the party continued northward into present-day South and North Carolina, across the Smoky Mountains into Tennessee, and southward into Georgia and Alabama. Their fiercest battle with Indians, which resulted in the loss of many men as well as the pearls, occurred in southeastern Alabama.

De Soto and his followers, anxious to find riches, set out once again to the north-

west into northern Mississippi. In May 1541 de Soto sighted the Mississippi River south of current-day Memphis, Tennessee. After crossing the Mississippi he explored Arkansas, and established his winter quarters near the present site of Fort Smith. Having made up his mind to return to the sea, he reached the mouth of the Arkansas River, where he died of fever on May 21, 1542. De Soto's men wrapped his body in cloaks packed with sand and cast it into the river. The 311 survivors of the expedition, under Luis de Moscoso, floated down the Mississippi and coasted along the Gulf shore until they reached Tampico, Mexico, in September 1543.

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## JOHN DEWEY

**Born:** October 20, 1859

**Burlington, Vermont**

**Died:** June 1, 1952

**New York, New York**

*American philosopher, educator, and writer*

During the first half of the twentieth century, John Dewey was one of America's most famous teachers of philosophy (the study of the universe and man's place in it). He also made some controversial suggestions for changes in the American educational system.

### **Early life**

Born on October 20, 1859, in Burlington, Vermont, John Dewey was the third of Archibald Dewey and Lucina Artemisia Rich's four children. His father was a local merchant who loved literature. His mother possessed a stern moral sense based on her belief in Calvinism (a religion in which one's faith is expressed through moral behavior and good works). John Dewey learned about other cultures from nearby Irish and French-Canadian settlements. Boyhood jobs delivering newspapers and working at a lumberyard added to his knowledge. While visiting his father, who served in the Union Army in Virginia, he viewed the horror of the Civil War (1861–1865) firsthand.

### **Educational career**

At the age of fifteen, Dewey, after receiving average grades in Vermont public schools, entered the University of Vermont. His best grades were in science, which he would later regard as the highest expression of human intellect. Dewey became aware of the world of ideas during his senior year. Courses on psychology (the science of mind and behavior), religion, ethics (the study of moral values), and logic (the science of reasoning) interested him more than his earlier training in languages and science. His teacher, H. A. P. Torrey, introduced him to the

works of different philosophers. The quality of his work improved, and at the age of nineteen, he graduated second in his class.

Unsure of what career to pursue, Dewey hoped to teach high school. After an unsuccessful summer of job hunting, his cousin, principal of a seminary (institute for the training of priests) in Pennsylvania, got him a teaching job, which he held for two years. Dewey continued to read philosophy in his spare time. When his cousin resigned, however, Dewey lost his job. He returned to Vermont to become the only teacher in a private school in Charlotte. He began to spend time with Torrey again, and the two discussed Dewey's readings in ancient and modern philosophy.

### ***Intellectual development***

At this time most American philosophy teachers were religious men, who placed more importance on religious ideas than on creative thought. Philosophy was taught by lay teachers (teachers not associated with any particular religion) in only a few schools. One such school was in St. Louis, where William T. Harris established the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*. Here Dewey published his first essay. Dewey decided to pursue a career in philosophy and applied for admission to the newly founded Johns Hopkins University, which also attracted and employed lay philosophers. At Johns Hopkins, Dewey studied with George S. Morris, who was on leave as chairman of the philosophy department at the University of Michigan. In 1884 Dewey completed his doctorate and, at Morris's invitation, he went to teach at Michigan.

In Ann Arbor, Michigan, Dewey met and married Alice Chipman, with whom he would have seven children. He became inter-



*John Dewey.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

ested in problems of education as he traveled around the state to monitor the quality of college preparation courses. In 1888 he accepted an appointment at the University of Minnesota, only to return to Michigan a year later to replace Morris, who had died. The next stage in Dewey's intellectual development came with his reading of William James's *Principles of Psychology*. Dewey became a believer in "instrumentalism," a belief that thinking is an activity which, at its best, is directed toward resolving problems.

In 1894 Dewey moved to Chicago, Illinois, after accepting a position as head of a new department of philosophy and psychol-

ogy at the University of Chicago. To test his theories of education, he started an experimental school with his wife as principal. The “Dewey school,” however, caused a struggle between its founder and the university’s president, William R. Harper. In 1904, when Harper tried to fire his wife, Dewey resigned in protest. One of Dewey’s friends then got him a job at Columbia University in New York, New York, where Dewey spent the rest of his teaching years.

### *Peak of his influence*

Living in New York placed the Deweys at the center of America’s cultural and political life. In 1929 Dewey helped organize the League for Independent Political Action in hopes of creating a new political party. He also served as an editor of the *New Republic* magazine and helped found both the American Civil Liberties Union and the American Association of University Professors. After World War I (1914–18), he traveled the world, lecturing in Japan at the Imperial Institute and spending two years teaching at universities in China. In 1924 he went to study schools in Turkey, and two years later he visited the University of Mexico. His praise for the Russian educational system he inspected on a 1928 trip to the Soviet Union earned him much criticism. Dewey was a shy and quiet man, and as a teacher he sometimes put his students to sleep. Those who managed to stay awake, however, could watch a man fascinated with ideas actually creating ideas in his classroom.

In 1930 Dewey retired from teaching, but he continued to publish works clarifying his ideas. Although many are difficult to read, he published over three hundred books and

articles. In public affairs he was one of the first to warn of the dangers from Adolf Hitler’s (1889–1945) rise to power in Germany and of the Japanese threat in the Far East. At the age of eighty-seven, Dewey married a widow, Roberta Grant. (His first wife died in 1927.) In the early 1950s Dewey’s support of American intervention in Korea earned him criticism from the Soviet Union. He died on June 1, 1952.

### *Dewey’s philosophy*

In his philosophy Dewey sought to rise above what he considered the inaccurate statements made by other philosophers. While he saw most of man’s behavior as shaped by habit, he believed that the processes of change often produced conditions that could not be explained. The resulting conflict led to creative thinking in which man tried to reestablish control of his changing environment. Thought, for Dewey, was part of a process by which man related to his surroundings. Dewey believed that universal education could train men to break through habit into creative thought.

Dewey saw American democracy, which he considered the best form of government, challenged by the effects of the industrial revolution, which had led to too much wealth in the hands of a few men. This threat, he believed, could be met by the right kind of education. The “progressive education” movement of the 1920s was based on Dewey’s ideas. Because he placed great importance on the classroom as a place for students to encounter the “present,” his interpreters sometimes neglected to study the past and to prepare students for the future. Dewey’s influence on American schools was

so strong that many critics attacked his ideas as the cause of all that they found wrong with American education.

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## DIANA, PRINCESS OF WALES

**Born:** July 1, 1961

**Sandringham, England**

**Died:** August 31, 1997

**Paris, France**

*English princess*

## DIANA, PRINCESS OF WALES

Lady Diana Frances Spencer married Prince Charles (1948–) in 1981 and became Princess of Wales. Retaining her title and her popularity after the royal couple divorced in 1996, Diana continued her charitable work. She died in a tragic car accident in 1997.

### **Quiet and reserved**

Diana Frances Spencer was born on July 1, 1961, in Norfolk, England, the third of the Lord and Lady Althorp's four children. She grew up next door to the royal family's Sandringham estate. One of Diana's playmates was Prince Andrew, Charles's brother. Diana's mother, the Honorable Frances Shand-Kydd, was the daughter of a wealthy Anglo-Irish baron. Diana's father, the Viscount Althorp, who became an earl in 1975, was a direct descendant of King Charles II (1630–1685).

Diana, a quiet and reserved child, had a happy home life until she was eight years old, when her parents went through a bitter divorce. Her father won custody of the children. Diana's academic career was unremarkable. She was tutored at home until age nine, when she was sent to Riddlesworth Hall in Norfolk. At the age of twelve, Diana began attending the exclusive West Heath School in Sevenoaks, Kent, England. After failing to pass two exams she left West Heath at the age of sixteen. Her father then sent her to a Swiss school, but she quickly became homesick and returned to Norfolk. She hired herself out as a part-time cleaning woman for a while before finding work as a kindergarten teacher's assistant.



*Diana, Princess of Wales.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

### ***The girl next door***

Although Prince Charles had known Diana almost all her life, he thought of her as a playmate for his younger brothers. He later dated Diana's older sister, Lady Sarah. Lady Sarah reintroduced Charles and Diana in 1977. "[Diana] taught him how to tap-dance on the terrace," a family friend once told *McCall's*. "He thought she was adorable . . . full of vitality (liveliness) and terribly sweet." Charles was struck by "what a very amusing and jolly and attractive 16-year-old she was," *Time* reported. Diana concluded that the prince was "pretty amazing."

However, Charles thought Diana was too young to consider as a marriage prospect and the romance didn't bloom for another three years. In July 1980 Diana visited the royal family's Balmoral Castle in Scotland to see her sister, Lady Jane, who was married to Robert Fellowes, the queen's assistant secretary. Once again Diana ran into Charles, and the two walked and fished together. Charles was quoted as saying in *Time*, "I began to realize what was going on in my mind and hers in particular." Diana was invited back in September. Soon afterward, reporters began to suspect the nature of her relationship with Charles and began to follow Diana constantly.

### ***Royal wedding***

Charles proposed to Diana during dinner in his Buckingham Palace apartment in February 1981. Diana was the first British citizen to marry the heir to the throne since 1659. Since Diana was an Anglican, there were no legal obstacles to marry the man who, as king, would head the Church of England. In addition, a well-known saying soon made the rounds in the press: Diana had a history, but no past. This was very important to the royal family. Diana resigned her teaching post and moved into the palace's Clarence House with the Queen Mother, where she was instructed in how to conduct herself as a member of the royal family.

The Archbishop of Canterbury and twenty-five other members of the clergy took part in the wedding of Prince Charles and Lady Diana on July 29, 1981. There were twenty-five hundred people in the church, and a worldwide TV audience of about 750 million watched the ceremony under the dome of St. Paul's Cathedral. Five mounted military police

officers led Diana in her glass coach from Clarence House to St. Paul's. Two million spectators—whose behavior was kept in check by 4,000 policemen and 2,228 soldiers—jammed the processional route.

### ***Life as a princess***

The public loved Diana, and after the wedding her life became an endless round of public appearances, with 170 official engagements during the first year alone. In their first seven years of marriage, the Prince and Princess of Wales made official visits to nineteen countries and held hundreds of hand-shaking sessions. Their first son, Prince William, nicknamed Wills, was born in June of 1982. Their second son, Harry, was born two years later in September of 1984. The boys were sometimes referred to as “the heir and the spare.” Diana was said to be a caring mother, trying to raise the children as normally as possible.

Over the years, Diana became involved in many charitable causes. She called attention to the problems of homelessness and drug abuse, shook hands with patients at an AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome; a disease that affects the immune system) ward in a Middlesex hospital, and once visited victims of an Irish Republican Army (IRA) bombing in Northern Ireland. In 1990, *People* magazine noted, Diana was involved with forty-four charities, making more than 180 visits on their behalf the previous year. “I don’t just want to be a name on a letterhead,” the princess was quoted as saying in the *Saturday Evening Post*.

### ***Problems in the marriage***

Rumors of problems between the royal couple surfaced just a few years after the

wedding. Many reports stated that Charles quickly lost interest in his bride and that he spent too much time gardening. Diana was said to be self-absorbed and too interested in clothes. Others noted problems such as the couple’s age difference and their different interests. Charles enjoyed polo and horse-back riding; Diana once fell off a horse and lost interest in riding afterward. He enjoyed opera; she preferred ballet and rock music. Charles’s friendship with Camilla Parker Bowles, a woman he had once asked to marry him, was also seen as a problem. The media began tracking the number of days the two spent apart, noting Charles’s long stays away from home.

In December 1992 it was formally announced that the royal couple was separating. In 1993 Diana announced that in an attempt to avoid the constant media coverage of her activities, she would be withdrawing from public life, though she would continue her charity work. In 1994, in an unusually honest interview, Prince Charles admitted his relationship with Camilla Parker Bowles, though he claimed it began only after his marriage had completely broken down. In November 1995, Diana responded with a television interview of her own. This raised eyebrows because Diana had informed Queen Elizabeth of the interview only after it had already taken place, and just days before it was scheduled to be broadcast.

Shortly thereafter, the Queen asked the couple to consider a divorce. On February 29, 1996, Diana gave her consent to a divorce—though again she went against tradition by not informing the Queen first. Terms of the divorce were announced in July 1996. Diana would be involved in all deci-



sions about the children and the couple would share access to them, she would remain at Kensington Palace, and she would be known as Diana, Princess of Wales. She would lose the prefix H.R.H. (Her Royal Highness) and any right to the British throne. However, she kept all her jewelry and received a settlement of almost \$23 million, and Charles agreed to pay the costs of maintaining her private office.

### *After the divorce*

Diana continued her role as Princess of Wales after the divorce. She visited terminally ill people in hospitals, traveled to Bosnia to meet the victims of land mines, and met Mother Teresa in New York City's South Bronx in June 1997. Romantically, the press linked her with Dodi al Fayed, whose father owned Harrods Department Store in London. On August 31, 1997, photographers followed the couple after they had dined in Paris. The combination of pursuing reporters, driving at a high rate of speed, and a drunk driver led to an automobile accident. Some witnesses stated that photographers snapped pictures and interfered with police officers and rescue workers at the scene. The driver and Fayed died at the scene; Princess Diana died from her injuries a few hours later.

The world mourned for "the people's princess." People waited up to eight hours to sign books of sympathy at St. James Palace, and one-hundred thousand people a day passed through Kensington Palace, where Diana lived. Her mother stated, "I thank God for the gift of Diana and for all her loving and giving. I give her back to Him, with my love, pride and admiration to rest in peace." Queen

Elizabeth II went on live television and said of Diana, "She was an exceptional and gifted human being." It was estimated that 2.5 billion people watched Princess Diana's funeral on television, nearly half the population of the world.

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## CHARLES DICKENS

**Born:** February 7, 1812

**Portsea (now Portsmouth), England**

**Died:** June 9, 1870

**Near Chatham, England**

*English author, novelist, and journalist*

English author Charles Dickens continues to be one of the most widely read Victorian (nineteenth-century) novelists. Scrooge, David Copperfield, Oliver Twist, and Nicholas Nickleby remain familiar characters today. His novels describe the life and conditions of the poor and working class in the Victorian era of England, when people lived by strict rules.

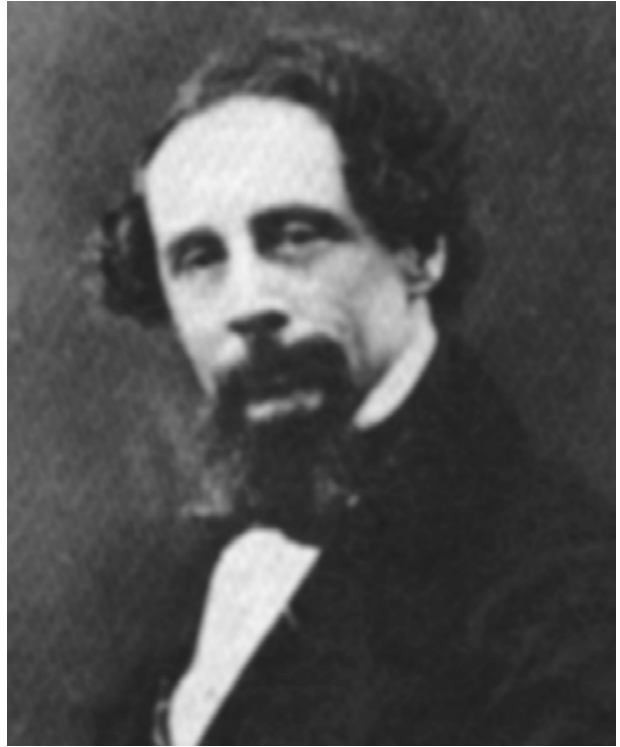
### Childhood and schooling

Charles John Huffam Dickens was born on February 7, 1812, at Portsea (later part of Portsmouth) on the southern coast of England, to John and Elizabeth Dickens. Charles was the second born of eight children. His father was a pay clerk in the navy office. Because of financial difficulties, the family moved about until they settled in Camden Town, a poor neighborhood in London, England. At the age of twelve Charles worked with working-class men and boys in a factory that handled “blacking,” or shoe polish. While his father was in debtor’s prison, the rest of the family moved to live near the prison, leaving Charles to live alone. This experience of lonely hardship was the most significant event of his life. It colored his view of the world and would later be described in a number of his novels.

Charles returned to school when his father received an inheritance and was able to repay his debts. But in 1827, at age fifteen, he was again forced leave school and work as an office boy. In the following year he became a freelance reporter and stenographer (using shorthand to transcribe documents) at the law courts of London. By 1832 he had become a reporter for two London newspapers and, in the following year, began to contribute a series of impressions and sketches to other newspapers and magazines, signing some of them “Boz.” These scenes of London life went far to establish his reputation and were published in 1836 as *Sketches by Boz*, his first book. On the strength of this success Charles married Catherine Hogarth. Together they had ten children.

### Early works

In 1836 Dickens also began to publish *The Posthumous Papers of the Pickwick Club* in



Charles Dickens.

monthly installments, a form of serial publication that became a standard method of writing and producing fiction in the Victorian period. So great was Dickens’s success with the procedure that *Pickwick* became one of the most popular works of the time, and continued to be so after it was published in book form in 1837.

After *Pickwick*’s success, Dickens began publishing his new novel, *Oliver Twist*. He was also now editor of *Bentley’s Miscellany*, a new monthly magazine. He continued publishing his novel in his later magazines, *Household Worlds* and *All the Year Round*. *Oliver Twist* expressed Dickens’s interest in the life of the slums to the fullest, as it traced

the fortunes of an innocent orphan through the London streets.

Though Dickens's career was successful, for the next decade his books did not achieve the standard of his early successes. These works include: *Nicholas Nickleby* (1838–1839), *The Old Curiosity Shop* (1840–1841), and *Barnaby Rudge* (1841).

In 1842 Dickens, who was as popular in America as he was in England, went on a five-month lecture tour of the United States, speaking out strongly against slavery and in support of other reforms. On his return he wrote *American Notes*, a book that criticizes American life as being culturally backward and materialistic (characterized by the desire for wealth and material goods). His next novel, *Martin Chuzzlewit* (1843–1844), describes the hero finding that survival on the American frontier is more difficult than making his way in England. During the years in which *Chuzzlewit* appeared, Dickens also published two Christmas stories, *A Christmas Carol* and *The Chimes*.

### **First major novels**

After a year abroad in Italy and writing *Pictures from Italy* (1846), Dickens published installments of *Dombey and Son*, which continued till 1848. This completed novel established a new standard in the Dickensian novel and marked the turning point in his career. As its full title indicates, *Dealings with the Firm of Dombey and Son* is a study of the influence of the values of a business society on the personal fortunes of a family and those with whom the family meets. It takes a somber view of England at mid-century, and its tone becomes characteristic of Dickens's future novels.

Dickens's next novel, *David Copperfield* (1849–1850), is the first complete record of the typical course of a young man's life in Victorian England. This autobiographical novel fictionalized elements of Dickens's childhood, his pursuit of a journalism career, and his love life. Though *Copperfield* is not Dickens's greatest novel, it was his personal favorite.

In 1850 Dickens began a new magazine, *Household Words*. His editorials and articles touched upon English politics, social institutions, and family life. They also spoke to the fictional treatment of these subjects in Dickens's novels. The weekly magazine ran to 1859, when Dickens began to conduct a new weekly, *All the Year Round*. In both these periodicals he published some of his major novels.

### **“Dark” novels**

The 1850s were a sad and dark time for Dickens. In 1851, within a two-week period, Dickens's father and one of his daughters died. In 1858, a year after he fell in love with an actress, he separated from his wife.

Partly in response to the deaths, Dickens's next series of works were called his “dark” novels, though they rank among the greatest triumphs of the art of fiction. In *Bleak House* (1852–1853), perhaps the most complicated plot of any English novel, the narrative served to create a sense of the interrelationship of all segments of English society. In *Hard Times* (1854), Dickens describes an English industrial town during the height of economic expansion, and details an up-close view of the limitations of both employers and reformers.

*Little Dorrit* (1855–1857) may be regarded as Dickens's greatest novel. In it he portrays the conditions of England as he saw

it, and the conflict between the world's harshness and human values in its most impressive artistic form.

### Later works

In this period Dickens also began to give public readings from his novels, which became even more popular than his lectures. In 1859 Dickens published *A Tale of Two Cities*, a historical novel of the French Revolution. Besides publishing this novel in the newly founded *All the Year Round*, Dickens also published seventeen articles, which appeared as a book in 1860 entitled *The Uncommercial Traveller*.

Dickens's next novel, *Great Expectations* (1860–1861), is regarded by some as his most perfectly executed work of art. It is a story of a young man's moral development from childhood to adult life. Three years later he produced *Our Mutual Friend*, which provides an insight of how he viewed London.

For several years Dickens's health declined. He never fully recovered from a railroad accident in 1865. He tired himself out by continuing to travel throughout the British Isles and America to read before audiences. He gave a final series of readings in London that began in 1870.

Dickens died of a fatal stroke on June 9, 1870, leaving the novel, *The Mystery of Edwin Drood*, unfinished. The day of his burial was made a day of national mourning in England.

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## EMILY DICKINSON

**Born:** December 10, 1830

**Amherst, Massachusetts**

**Died:** May 15, 1886

**Cambridge, Massachusetts**

*American poet and author*

One of the finest poets in the English language, the American poet Emily Dickinson was a keen observer of nature and a wise interpreter of human passion. In the privacy of her study, Dickinson developed her own forms of poetry and pursued her own visions, not paying attention to the fashions of literature of her day. Most of her work was published by her family and friends after her death.

### Early life and education

Emily Dickinson was born on December 10, 1830, in Amherst, Massachusetts, the oldest daughter of Edward Dickinson, a successful lawyer, member of Congress, and for



Emily Dickinson.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

many years treasurer of Amherst College, and of Emily Norcross Dickinson, a timid woman. Dickinson was fun-loving as a child, very smart, and enjoyed the company of others. Her brother, Austin, became a lawyer like his father and was also treasurer of Amherst College. The youngest child of the family, Lavinia, became the chief housekeeper and, like her sister Emily, remained at home all her life and never married. The sixth member of this tightly knit group was Susan Gilbert, Emily's ambitious and witty schoolmate who married Austin in 1856 and who moved into the house next door to the Dickinsons. At first she was Emily's very close friend and a

valued critic of her poetry, but by 1879 Emily was speaking of her as a "pseudo-sister" (false sister) and had long since stopped exchanging notes and poems.

Amherst in the 1840s was a sleepy village dominated by religion and the college. Dickinson was not religious and probably did not like some elements of the town—concerts were rare, and card games, dancing, and theater were unheard of. For relaxation she walked the hills with her dog, visited friends, and read.

Dickinson graduated from Amherst Academy in 1847. The following year (the longest time she was ever to spend away from home) she attended Mount Holyoke Female Seminary, but because of her fragile health she did not return. At the age of seventeen she settled into the Dickinson home and turned herself into a housekeeper and a more than ordinary observer of Amherst life.

### **Early work**

It is not known when Dickinson began to write poetry or what happened to the poems of her early youth. Only five poems can be dated before 1858, the year in which she began gathering her work into handwritten copies bound loosely with thread to make small packets. She sent these five early poems to friends in letters or as valentines. After 1858 she apparently convinced herself she had a genuine talent, for now her poems were carefully stored in a box for the possibility of inspection by future readers or even a publisher.

Publication, however, was not easily arranged. For four years Dickinson sent her friend Samuel Bowles, editor of the *Springfield Republican*, many poems and letters. He

published two poems, both without her name given as the author. And the first of these was edited, probably by Bowles, to make regular (and thus flatten) the rhymes and the punctuation. (Only seven poems were published during her lifetime, with editors altering all of them.)

### ***Friendship with T. W. Higginson***

In 1862 Dickinson turned to the literary critic Thomas Wentworth Higginson for advice about her poems. In time he became, in her words, her “safest friend.” She began her first letter to him by asking, “Are you too deeply occupied to say if my verse is alive?” Six years later she was bold enough to say, “You were not aware that you saved my life.” They did not meet until 1870—at her request, surprisingly—and only once more after that.

What Dickinson was seeking was assurance as well as advice, and Higginson apparently gave it without knowing it, through the letters they sent to each other the rest of her life. He helped her not at all with what mattered most to her—establishing her own private poetic method—but he was a friendly ear and mentor during the most troubled years of her life. Out of her inner troubles came rare poems in a form that Higginson never really understood.

### ***Years of emotional crisis***

Between 1858 and 1866 Dickinson wrote more than eleven hundred poems, full of off-rhymes and odd grammar. Few poems are more than sixteen lines long. The major subjects are love and separation, death, nature, and God—but especially love. When she writes “My life closed twice before its close,” one can only guess who her real or imagined

lovers might have been. Higginson was not one of them. It is more than likely that her first “dear friend” was Benjamin Newton, a young man too poor to marry who had worked for a few years in her father’s law office.

During a visit to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in 1855, Dickinson met the Reverend Charles Wadsworth. Sixteen years older than her, a brilliant preacher, and already married, he was hardly more than a mental image of a lover. There is no doubt she made him this, but nothing more. He visited her once in 1860. When he moved to San Francisco, California, in May 1862, she was in despair. Only a month before, Samuel Bowles had sailed for Europe for health reasons. She needed love, but she had to satisfy this need through her poems, perhaps because she felt she could deal with it no other way.

When Bowles returned to Amherst in November, the emotion Dickinson felt was so great that she remained in her bedroom and sent down a note: “That you return to us alive is better than a summer, and more to hear your voice below than news of any bird.” By the time Wadsworth returned from California in 1870, the crisis was over. Higginson had not saved her life; her life was never in danger. What had been in danger was her emotional balance and her control over her intense talent.

### ***Last years***

In the last two decades of Dickinson’s life, she wrote fewer than fifty poems a year, perhaps because of continuing eye trouble, but more probably because she had to take more responsibility in running the household. Her father died in 1874, and a year later her mother suffered a stroke that left her disabled

until her death in 1882. Dickinson's health failed noticeably after a nervous collapse in 1884, and on May 15, 1886, she died.

It is clear that Dickinson could not have written to please publishers, who were not ready to risk her striking style and originality. Had she published during her lifetime, negative public criticism might have driven her to an even more solitary state of existence, even to silence. "If fame belonged to me," she told Higginson, "I could not escape her; if she did not, the longest day would pass me on the chase. . . . My barefoot rank is better." The twentieth century lifted her without doubt to the first rank among poets.

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## DENIS DIDEROT

**Born:** October 15, 1713

Langres, France

**Died:** July 30, 1784

Paris, France

*French playwright, philosopher, and novelist*

The French philosopher (seeker of wisdom), playwright, and novelist Denis Diderot is best known as the editor of the *Encyclopédie*, a summary of information on all subjects that also questioned the authority of the Catholic Church.

### **Early years**

On October 15, 1713, Denis Diderot was born in Langres, Compagne, France, one of Didier and Angelique Diderot's seven children. His father was a cutler (a maker of cutting tools). As a child Denis was considered a brilliant student by his teachers, and it was decided that he should serve the church. In 1726 he enrolled in the Jesuit (Catholic order of priests devoted to educational work) college of Louis-le-Grand and probably later attended the Jansenist Collège d'Harcourt. In 1732 he earned a master's in philosophy (the study of the universe and man's place in it).

Diderot then abandoned religion as a career and decided to study law. The death of his sister, a nun, from being overworked in the convent may have affected Diderot's opinion of religion. In 1734 Diderot decided to seek his fortune by writing. Against his family's consent, he spent the next ten years earning his living by translating English books and tutoring the children of wealthy families. He spent his leisure time studying and chasing after women. In 1743 he further angered his father by marrying Anne Toinette Champion.

### **The Encyclopédie**

In January 1746 André François le Breton and his partners were granted permission

to publish a ten-volume encyclopedia. On the advice of the mathematician Jean D'Alembert and with the consent of Chancellor D'Aguesseau, Diderot was named general editor of the project.

For more than twenty-six years Diderot devoted the bulk of his energies to the writing, editing, and publishing of the *Encyclopédie*. For Diderot the aim of the work was "to assemble the knowledge scattered over the face of the earth; to explain its general plan to the men with whom we live . . . so that we may not die without having deserved well of the human race." Such was the plan and the purpose of the *Encyclopédie*, and it was also the motto of the Enlightenment (the eighteenth-century awakening of political and social thought that laid the foundation for the French and American revolutions). But the project was more than just the gathering of all available knowledge; it was also a learning experience for all those connected with it. It introduced Diderot to crafts, fine arts, and many other areas of learning. It was an outlet for his curiosity, his scholarly interests, and his creativity.

In 1751 D'Alembert's *Preliminary Discourse* and the first volume of the *Encyclopédie* were published. In January 1752 the second volume appeared, but the opposition of Jesuits and other critics forced a temporary suspension. Publication was soon resumed and continued at the rate of one volume a year until 1759, when the Royal Council banned further operations. Diderot and Le Breton, however, continued to write and publish the *Encyclopédie* secretly until 1765, when official approval was regained. In 1772 the completed work was published



Denis Diderot.

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in seventeen volumes of text and eleven volumes of illustrations.

### Other writings

Diderot continued to devote himself to other writings throughout the period of his association with the *Encyclopédie*. In 1746 he published *Philosophical Thoughts*, which discussed the relationship between nature and religion. He stated his belief that virtue (moral excellence) could be achieved without religious beliefs. In *Sceptics Walk* (1747) and *Letters on the Blind* (1749) Diderot slowly turned to atheism (a disbelief in the exis-



tence of God). Religion became a central theme in his writings, and he angered public officials, who considered him a dangerous leader of radicals (those holding extremely different views).

In 1749 Diderot was imprisoned for three months because of his opinions in *Philosophical Thoughts*. He had stated, "If you impose silence on me about religion and government, I shall have nothing to talk about." After his release he toned down his published works. Therefore, most of his antireligious works and several of his novels were not published during his lifetime.

#### **Later years**

Following the completion of the *Encyclopédie* in 1772, Diderot went into semiretirement; he wrote steadily but did not publish all of his works. His earnings as editor of the *Encyclopédie* guaranteed him a decent income, which he added to by writing literary criticism. In addition, he sold his library to Empress Catherine of Russia (1729–1796), who allowed him to keep it while he lived and paid him an annual salary as its librarian. On July 30, 1784, Diderot died in the home of his daughter.

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## JOE DiMAGGIO

**Born:** November 24, 1914

**Martinez, California**

**Died:** March 8, 1999

**Hollywood, Florida**

*American baseball player*

Joe DiMaggio was named the "Greatest Living Player" in a 1969 poll of sports-writers. He took the great American pastime of baseball to new heights during his career, and he was the epitome (the perfect example) of the sports hero of the 1940s and 1950s.

#### **Before the Yankees**

Giuseppe Paolo (Joe) DiMaggio Jr. was born on November 24, 1914. He was the son of Italian immigrant parents. He grew up in the San Francisco, California, area with his four brothers and four sisters. All eleven DiMaggios lived in a small, four-room house. His father fished for crabs and his sons helped him when they were old enough. Joe did not like fishing, and he always found ways to avoid going out to sea with his father and brothers or to avoid cleaning the catch when the boat came home.

At the age of seventeen DiMaggio started to play minor league baseball with the San Francisco Seals. One of his older brothers was playing on that team and recommended Joe for a position. Joe started with a salary of \$250 a month. He became a Bay Area celebrity in 1933 when he got hits in sixty-one consecutive games, an all-time record for the league. His batting average (the percent-

age of time that a batter gets a hit) was .340 and he batted in 169 runs.

A year later DiMaggio hit .341, and the New York Yankees purchased his contract for twenty-five thousand dollars and five minor league players. DiMaggio's debut (start) in centerfield with the Yankees was delayed because of an injury. When he appeared on the field for the first time, on May 3, 1936, twenty-five thousand cheering, flag-waving, Italian residents of New York showed up to welcome him to the team.

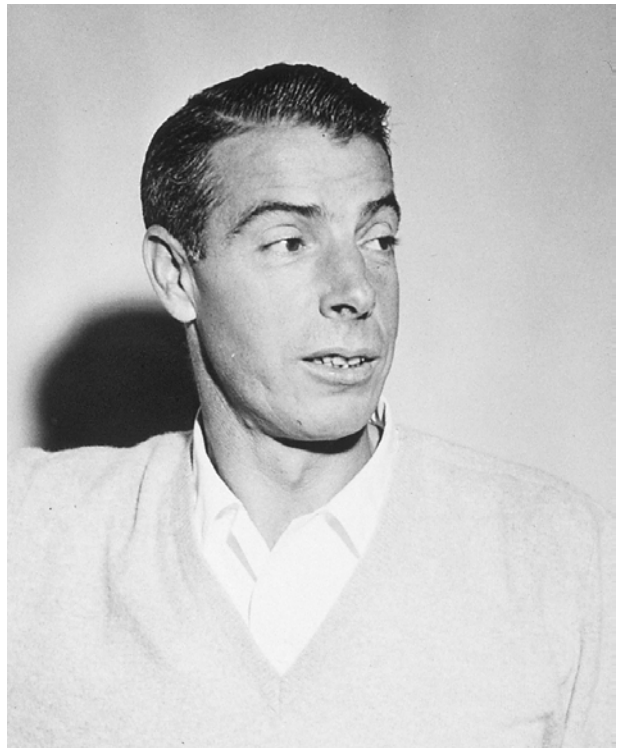
### ***"Joltin' Joe, the Yankee Clipper"***

By 1936 DiMaggio was known as "Joltin' Joe" for the power of his batting and "The Yankee Clipper" after the ships built for speed that crossed the Atlantic Ocean. He led the league with a career-high of 46 home runs. Over the term of his career DiMaggio hit 361 home runs. He placed fifth on the major league all-time home run list when he retired in 1951.

In 1937 DiMaggio batted an impressive .346, driving in 167 runs. The next season DiMaggio hit .324, followed in 1939 with a .381. This gave him his first batting championship and won him the league's Most Valuable Player award. Late in the 1939 season DiMaggio was hitting at a .412 pace, but eye trouble kept him from staying above the .400 mark.

### ***The streak***

During the 1940 season, DiMaggio captured his second consecutive batting title with a .352, but for the first time since he had joined the Yankees his team failed to win the pennant (the league championship). How-



*Joe DiMaggio.*

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ever, DiMaggio made baseball history in the 1941 season.

DiMaggio began a fifty-six-game hitting streak starting on May 15, 1941. He got a hit in every game he played until July 17, 1941. In between he hit .406, and fans all over the country anxiously checked each game day to see if the Yankee Clipper had kept his streak going. People crowded into the ballpark, radio programs were interrupted for "DiMag" bulletins, the U.S. Congress designated a page boy to rush DiMaggio bulletins to the floor, and newspaper switchboards lit up every afternoon with the question of the day,

"Did DiMaggio get his hit?" Two pitchers on the Cleveland Indians ended his hitting streak on July 17, but after that game he started another hitting streak that went on for seventeen games.

In 1941 DiMaggio won his second Most Valuable Player award. Like the rest of the people in the country, he also began to feel the pressure of a nation readying itself for war. World War II lasted from 1939 until 1945. During that time the Axis (Germany, Italy, and Japan) tried to gain control of the world, but the Allies (the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and France) defeated them. During the 1942 season DiMaggio batted .305, but he was drafted into the army along with thousands of other young men.

DiMaggio spent three years in the army and returned to professional baseball in 1946. That season was a disappointment—he batted only .290—but by 1947 he was back in form, hitting .315. That year he won his third Most Valuable Player award and led his team to the pennant.

### **Baseball Hall of Fame**

Aided by New York City newspapers, radio, and television, as well as his own powerful statistics, DiMaggio became a national hero after the war. Even people who did not like the Yankees liked Joe. In 1948 DiMaggio had returned to the height of this form, winning the home run title with 39, the RBI (runs batted in) crown with 155, and the batting title with a .320 average. DiMaggio sat out the first two months of the 1949 season with problems in his heel, but, as always, his return was memorable. In 1949 he became the American League's first player to earn \$100,000.

DiMaggio played in pain during his first games for new manager Casey Stengel (1890–1975), but he hit four home runs in three games and helped the Yankees bring home another pennant. In 1951, with another soon-to-be Yankee superstar, young Mickey Mantle, on the scene, DiMaggio's average slipped to .263 with only twelve home runs.

DiMaggio announced his retirement in 1952 when he was thirty-seven. He turned down another \$100,000 contract for that year. This would have been his fourth contract of this size in a row. DiMaggio said, "When baseball is no longer fun, it's no longer a game." The Yankees honored him by retiring his uniform number, number five. This means that no Yankee baseball player will ever wear that number again.

After DiMaggio retired he hosted television shows shown before baseball games, made television commercials, and was briefly married to the Hollywood actress Marilyn Monroe (1926–1962). He was elected to the Baseball Hall of Fame in 1955, named the "Greatest Living Player" in 1969 in a poll of sportswriters, and was named as a member of the All-Century Team in 1999.

Joe DiMaggio died at his home in Hollywood, Florida, on March 8, 1999. He was always a modest man and always worked to play his best game even when faced with health problems. Joe DiMaggio is remembered as an inspiration not only for sports fans, but for all people.

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## WALT DISNEY

**Born:** December 5, 1901

**Chicago, Illinois**

**Died:** December 15, 1966

**Los Angeles, California**

*American animator, filmmaker, and businessman*

An American filmmaker and businessman, Walt Disney created a new kind of popular culture with feature-length animated cartoons and live-action “family” films.

### Early life

Walter Elias Disney was born in Chicago, Illinois, on December 5, 1901, the fourth of five children born to Elias and Flora Call Disney. His father, a strict and religious man who often physically abused his children, was working as a building contractor when Walter was born. Soon afterward, his father took over a farm in Marceline, Missouri, where he moved the family. Walter was very happy on the farm and developed his love of animals while living there. After the farm failed, the family moved to Kansas City,

Missouri, where Walter helped his father deliver newspapers. He also worked selling candy and newspapers on the train that traveled between Kansas City and Chicago, Illinois. He began drawing and took some art lessons during this time.

Disney dropped out of high school at seventeen to serve in World War I (1914–18; a war between German-led Central powers and the Allies—England, the United States, and other nations). After a short stretch as an ambulance driver, he returned to Kansas City in 1919 to work as a commercial illustrator and later made crude animated cartoons (a series of drawings with slight changes in each that resemble movement when filmed in order). By 1922 he had set up his own shop as a partner with Ub Iwerks, whose drawing ability and technical skill were major factors in Disney's eventual success.

### Off to Hollywood

Initial failure with Ub Iwerks sent Disney to Hollywood, California, in 1923. In partnership with his older brother, Roy, he began producing *Oswald the Rabbit* cartoons for Universal Studios. After a contract dispute led to the end of this work, Disney and his brother decided to come up with their own character. Their first success came in *Steamboat Willie*, which was the first all-sound cartoon. It also featured Disney as the voice of a character first called “Mortimer Mouse.” Disney's wife, Lillian (whom he had married in 1925) suggested that Mickey sounded better, and Disney agreed.

Disney reinvested all of his profits toward improving his pictures. He insisted on technical perfection, and his gifts as a story editor quickly pushed his firm ahead.



Walt Disney.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

The invention of such cartoon characters as Mickey Mouse, Donald Duck, Minnie, and Goofy, combined with the clever use of music, sound, and folk material (as in *The Three Little Pigs*), made the Disney shorts of the 1930s successful all over the world. This success led to the establishment of the hugely profitable, Disney-controlled sidelines in advertising, publishing, and merchandising.

### **Branching out**

Disney rapidly expanded his studio operations to include a training school where a whole new generation of artists developed and made possible the production of the first

feature-length cartoon, *Snow White* (1937). Other costly animated features followed, including *Pinocchio*, *Bambi*, and the famous musical experiment *Fantasia*. With *Seal Island* (1948), wildlife films became an additional source of income. In 1950 *Treasure Island* led to what became the studio's major product, live-action films, which basically cornered the traditional "family" market. Disney's biggest hit, *Mary Poppins*, was one of his many films that used occasional animation to project wholesome, exciting stories containing sentiment and music.

In 1954 Disney successfully invaded television, and by the time of his death the Disney studio had produced 21 full-length animated films, 493 short subjects, 47 live-action films, 7 *True-Life Adventure* features, 330 hours of *Mickey Mouse Club* television programs, 78 half-hour *Zorro* television adventures, and 280 other television shows.

### **Construction of theme parks**

On July 18, 1957, Disney opened Disneyland in Anaheim, California, the most successful amusement park in history, with 6.7 million people visiting it by 1966. The idea for the park came to him after taking his children to other amusement parks and watching them have fun on amusement rides. He decided to build a park where the entire family could have fun together. In 1971 Disney World in Orlando, Florida, opened. Since then, Disney theme parks have opened in Tokyo, Japan, and Paris, France.

Disney also dreamed of developing a city of the future, a dream that came true in 1982 with the opening of Experimental Prototype Community of Tomorrow (EPCOT). EPCOT, which cost an initial \$900 million,

was planned as a real-life community of the future with the very latest in technology (the use of science to achieve a practical purpose). The two principle areas of EPCOT are Future World and World Showcase, both of which were designed for adults rather than children.

### ***Disney's business empire***

Furthermore, Disney created and funded a new university, the California Institute of the Arts, known as Cal Arts. He thought of this as the peak of education for the arts, where people in many different forms could work together, dream and develop, and create the mixture of arts needed for the future. Disney once commented: "It's the principal thing I hope to leave when I move on to greener pastures. If I can help provide a place to develop the talent of the future, I think I will have accomplished something."

Disney's parks continue to grow with the creation of the Disney-MGM Studios, Animal Kingdom, and an extensive sports complex in Orlando. The Disney Corporation has also branched out into other types of films with the creation of Touchstone Films, into music with Hollywood Records, and even into vacations with its Disney Cruise Lines. In all, the Disney name now covers a multi-billion dollar enterprise, with business ventures all over the world.

In 1939 Disney received an honorary (received without meeting the usual requirements) Academy Award, and in 1954 he received four more Academy Awards. In 1965 President Lyndon B. Johnson (1908–1973) presented Disney with the Presidential Medal of Freedom, and in the same year Disney was awarded the Freedom Foundation Award.

Walt Disney, happily married for forty-one years, was moving ahead with his plans for huge, new outdoor recreational areas when he died on December 15, 1966, in Los Angeles, California. At the time of his death, his enterprises had brought him respect, admiration, and a business empire worth over \$100 million a year, but Disney was still mainly remembered as the man who had created Mickey Mouse almost forty years before.

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**ELIZABETH  
DOLE**

**Born:** July 29, 1936

**Salisbury, North Carolina**

*American lawyer, cabinet member, organization president, and politician*

Elizabeth Dole's work as a lawyer, White House aide, cabinet officer, and president of the American Red Cross has made her one of the most recognizable faces in the American political landscape.

### *Early life and education*

Elizabeth Hanford Dole was born on July 29, 1936, and grew up in Salisbury, North Carolina, the daughter of a well-to-do flower wholesaler. As a small child, she called herself Liddy, and the nickname stuck, although as an adult she prefers Elizabeth. She looked up to her grandmother as well as her brother, who was thirteen years older. Her childhood was privileged, and she received private ballet, piano, and horseback riding lessons.

Always an excellent student, she was also active in drama and student government. She was elected president of her freshman class in high school. She attended Duke University and majored in political science. Dole was often described as friendly, gracious, and "brainy," attributes that led to her election as college May Queen, as student body president, and to Phi Beta Kappa (an undergraduate honors society).

In 1960 Dole received a master's degree in education from Harvard, and graduated from Harvard Law School in 1965 as one of twenty-five female graduates in a class of five hundred. After law school Dole went to Washington, D.C. In Washington she earned a reputation as a supporter of consumer rights while working in various government agencies, including the Department of Health, Education and Welfare; the Presidential Committee for Consumer Interests; and the U.S. Office of Consumer Affairs. Although briefly employed in private law practice, her main

commitment soon became public service.

### *Career and marriage in Washington*

In 1973 Dole was nominated to be one of five commissioners on the Federal Trade Commission (FTC). Once appointed, she became known for her enforcement of the Equal Credit Opportunity Act of 1975, which gives all people in the United States an equal chance to receive credit and loans, and for investigating nursing home abuses. A colleague at the FTC remembered her priorities as "the poor, the handicapped, minorities, and women."

Elizabeth Hanford married Robert Dole, the senior senator from Kansas, in 1975. They quickly became known as Washington's top "Power Couple" because of their important roles in national politics. However glamorous that title may seem, it referred strictly to their jobs and not their social life. Their lives revolved almost totally around their work. Marrying late in life (she was nearly forty and the senator was fifty-three), the Doles had no children.

Although Dole was a Democrat in her early years, she became a registered Independent, and then, after her marriage, she became a Republican. She campaigned vigorously when her husband ran for vice president in 1976. When he ran for president in 1979, she gave up her position as FTC commissioner to campaign for him full-time. Although that campaign was unsuccessful, by 1980 "Liddy" Dole was becoming well known as one of the Republican Party's most outstanding female leaders and recognized as a competitor for high political office.

### ***Service in Reagan and Bush administrations***

In 1983 President Ronald Reagan appointed Dole as secretary of transportation, the first woman in American history to hold that cabinet position. She headed an organization of 102,000 employees and administered a budget of \$28 billion. Since the secretary of transportation is also the director of the U.S. Coast Guard, she was the first woman to command an armed service in the United States.

Safety became Dole's focus. She supported putting a third brake light on cars and installing air bags to protect passengers. Her early victories as secretary included winning government funds for new passenger railway lines and for the renovation of Washington, D.C.'s Union Station, as well as for the passage of a maritime (involving transportation by sea) reform bill.

Despite her identification with liberal (in favor of individual rights) consumer issues and her former support for the Equal Rights Amendment (the ERA; a proposed amendment to the U.S. Constitution, which would have guaranteed equality under the law to all Americans regardless of sex), which Reagan opposed, Dole received strong backing from the conservative (in favor of preserving tradition and gradual change) Reagan administration. Critics, however, viewed her commitment to important issues as secondary to her ambition. *The Washington Monthly* summarized this feeling when it observed that Dole was a "role player, her positions defined by her job description rather than deeply felt beliefs."

Raised a devoted Methodist, Dole regularly attended church but usually kept her religious views private. A turning point came



*Elizabeth Dole.*

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in 1987 when she described her Christian beliefs at the National Prayer Breakfast in Washington, D.C. Afterwards Dole became a favorite of Christian conservatives and began to speak regularly to religious groups around the country.

Dole resigned as secretary of transportation in 1987 to campaign for her husband's second run for the presidency, which, like the first, was unsuccessful. Because of her previous cabinet-level experience under Reagan, and her immense popularity within the Republican Party, Dole was asked to be the new secretary of labor by President George Bush (1924–) in 1989. As secretary of labor,



Dole negotiated a raise in the minimum wage. She also oversaw efforts to break “glass ceiling” restrictions that prevented movement of women and minorities into high executive positions.

### ***Headed the American Red Cross***

In 1990 Dole resigned as secretary of labor to become the president of the American Red Cross, an organization for emergency relief. As head of the Red Cross she oversaw a \$1.8 billion annual budget, 32,000 employees, and 1.4 million volunteers. Priorities during her first term included improving the safety of the nation’s blood supply against acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease that affects the immune system) and improving the charitable giving by Americans. In 1996 Dole took a one-year leave of absence to assist her husband’s third unsuccessful campaign for the presidency. She returned to the agency in 1997, but resigned in early 1999.

### ***Played prominent role in 1996 campaign***

According to the *New York Times*, Dole’s leave of absence from the Red Cross was an example of her belief in and commitment to her husband. It was the fourth time that she had left a job to help him. Her loyalty was apparent at the 1996 Republican National Convention in her talk-show style “Why I Love Bob” speech. During the speech, she walked into the audience and spoke in personal terms about her husband. She delivered a biographical speech describing the senator from his childhood days in Kansas to his bid for the White House. So successful was Dole’s speech that, after the convention, she acquired her own staff of thirty and cam-

paigned separately for her husband. Despite her efforts, the senator was defeated by then-president Bill Clinton.

Dole continued to be a popular guest speaker and delivered the 1997 commencement address at Duke University. In March 1999, she announced her unofficial bid for the 2000 presidential election, but withdrew from the race in October of that year because she did not have enough money. The following March she supported the presidential campaign of fellow Republican George W. Bush (1946–). Although Dole dropped out of the 2000 presidential race, she continues to be active in politics. In 2002, she was the Republican nominee for the open U.S. Senate seat from North Carolina.

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## PLACIDO DOMINGO

**Born:** January 21, 1941

**Madrid, Spain**

*Spanish singer, conductor, and pianist*

Spanish-born tenor (the highest natural male voice) Plácido Domingo's performances are intelligent and dramatic. He is also a conductor and an accomplished pianist.

### Early life

Plácido Domingo was born in Madrid, Spain, on January 21, 1941. His parents, Plácido Domingo Sr. and Pepita Embil Domingo, met while performing in a zarzuela. (Zarzuela is a form of Spanish theater combining musical numbers with spoken dialogue.) His father played the violin and sang baritone roles (the middle range of the male voice, between tenor and bass) until he damaged his voice while singing with a cold. His mother was a singer who had made her first performance in Spain's most important opera house, the Teatro Liceo in Barcelona, Spain. In 1946 Domingo's parents joined a zarzuela company that eventually traveled to Mexico. Attracted to the country, Domingo's parents stayed and established their own company in Mexico City, Mexico.

Domingo began studying the piano shortly after the family moved to Mexico City, first privately and later at the National Conservatory. He also studied conducting. Domingo played soccer at his high school, the Instituto Mexico, and he also tried his hand at bullfighting. At the age of sixteen he met and married a fellow piano student. A son was born within the year, and shortly thereafter the couple separated.

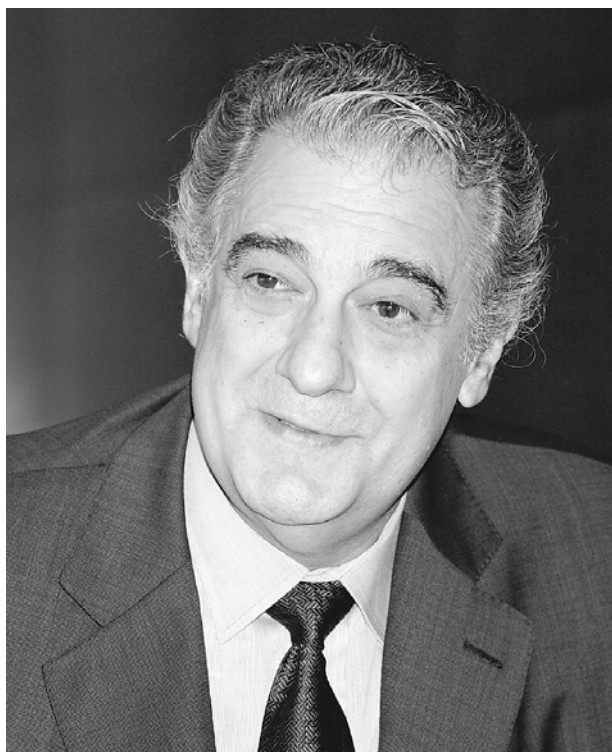
### Professional career

In 1957 Domingo began singing baritone roles with his parents' zarzuela com-

pany. His early career also included a production of *My Fair Lady*, of which he gave 185 performances without interruption. In 1959 Domingo tried out for the National Opera (Mexico) as a baritone, but he was asked to sing something in the tenor range instead. He was hired as a tenor *comprimario* (singer of secondary roles) and as a coach for other singers. He also played piano for a ballet company to make extra money and appeared on a Mexican television program, playing the piano to accompany portions of zarzuelas, operas, and musical comedies.

The number of Domingo's opera appearances increased steadily, and in November 1961 he made his first American appearance with the Dallas Civic Orchestra. In 1962 he married Marta Ornelas, who had been voted the best Mexican singer of the year. Before their marriage, they, along with baritone Franco Iglesias, formed an opera company that toured Mexico. At the end of 1962 they signed a six-month contract with the Hebrew National Opera in Tel Aviv, Israel. The operas performed there featured an international cast. A performance of *La Traviata*, for instance, included a baritone singing in Hungarian, a soprano (the highest female voice) in German, a tenor in Italian, and the chorus in Hebrew. Domingo's company stayed in Tel Aviv for over two years.

After leaving Tel Aviv, Domingo was hired by the New York City Opera. His first show was scheduled for October 21, 1965, in *Carmen*, but four days before the show he was asked to fill in in *Madame Butterfly* for a tenor who was sick. Domingo's official Metropolitan Opera debut came in September 1968, when he substituted for Franco Corelli in *Adrianna Lecouvreur* a week before his scheduled



Plácido Domingo.

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appearance. Domingo pursued conducting opportunities whenever possible, including a New York City Opera production of *La Traviata* during the 1973–74 season. He also appeared in film versions of several operas during the 1980s, and he organized benefit concerts that raised millions of dollars to help victims of a 1985 earthquake in Mexico.

#### **Worldwide acclaim**

During the 1990s Domingo achieved huge success with his Three Tenors performances with Jose Carreras (1946–) and Luciano Pavarotti (1935–). In 1994 1.3 billion people viewed their concert in Los Ange-

les, California, on television, and they sold more than ten million compact discs and videos. In 1996 Domingo became the artistic director of the Washington Opera while launching the Three Tenors World Tour, which brought opera to four continents and continued through 1997.

In 1998 Domingo agreed to take over as the artistic director of the Los Angeles Opera, beginning in 2000. In 1999 he set a record with his eighteenth opening night performance at the Metropolitan Opera House in New York City. In December 2000 Domingo received a Kennedy Center Honor for lifetime achievement from U.S. president Bill Clinton (1946–). Domingo was praised for his efforts to expand the audience for opera and to help those less fortunate around the world.

In September 2001 Domingo performed at a service in Yankee Stadium in New York City for victims of the September 11 terrorist attacks on the United States. In December of that year there was concern when Domingo, while performing in *Otello* in Milan, Italy, faltered and had to leave the stage briefly. He returned after a few moments, however, and completed the rest of the show.

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## DONATELLO

**Born:** c. 1386

**Florence, Italy**

**Died:** c. 1466

**Florence, Italy**

*Italian artist and sculptor*

The Italian sculptor Donatello was the greatest Florentine sculptor before Michelangelo (1475–1564), and was certainly the most influential individual artist of the fifteenth century in Italy.

### *Early life of a master*

Donato di Niccolò Bardi, called Donatello, was born in 1386 in Florence, Italy. Little is known about his life, although many short stories about his life are recorded by Giorgio Vasari in his *Lives of the Artists* (1550). In Florence Donatello learned the basics of sculpting at the Stonemasons' Guild, where he learned other crafts as well. Donatello then became an apprentice (a person who works to learn a trade) to Lorenzo Ghiberti (c. 1378–1455). In 1403, at the age of seventeen, Donatello was working for the master on the bronze reliefs (sculpting from a flat surface) of the doors of the Florentine Baptistry. By 1407 he had left Ghiberti for the workshops of the Cathedral in Florence.

### *Early works*

One of Donatello's earliest known works is the life-sized marble *David* (1408; reworked in 1416; now in the Bargello, Florence). Intended to decorate part of the Cathedral, in 1414 it was set up in the Palazzo Vecchio (a historic government building) as a symbol of

the Florentine republic, which was then engaged in a struggle with the king of Naples. The *David*, dramatic in posture and full of youthful energy, possesses something of the graceful late Gothic (an artistic movement between the twelfth and fifteenth centuries) feeling of a figure by Ghiberti.

Rapidly maturing, Donatello produced a strong and original style in two works: the large marble figure *St. Mark* on the outside of Orsanmichele, completed between 1411 and 1413; and the seated *St. John the Evangelist* for the facade (front) of the Cathedral (now in the Museo dell'Opera), finished in 1415. These powerful, over-life-sized figures established the sculptor's reputation. The *St. Mark* broke with tradition in its classical stance and became a stunning symbolic portrait of a noble Florentine hero in the republic of Donatello's day.

Donatello's new style was confirmed in the famous *St. George*, carved in marble around 1416 and 1417 for the exterior of Orsanmichele. Even more significant is the little marble relief *St. George and the Dragon*, that decorates the base. The marble was ordered in 1417, and the relief was completed shortly afterward. This is an important date, for the relief is the earliest example in art of the new science of perspective used to create a measurable space for the figures. Up to this time artists had conceived of a flat background in front of which, or in which, the figures were placed; now the low, pictorial forms seem to emerge from atmosphere and light.

### *Middle period*

Donatello was requested to create many pieces or works, which he often executed with other artists. An unusual work is the *Marzocco*, the lion of the Florentines, carved in sand-



Donatello.

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stone. It was ordered in 1418 for the papal (of the pope) apartments in Saint Maria Novella (now in the Museo Nazionale). Donatello's style in relief sculpture reached its height in the bronze *Feast of Herod*, completed in 1427 for the font in the Baptistry, Siena. Ghiberti, Jacopo della Quercia (c. 1374–1438), and other sculptors also executed reliefs for the front of the Baptistry. In Donatello's very low relief composition he nearly, but purposefully, avoided the accurate construction of one-point architectural perspective.

Around 1425 Donatello entered into partnership with Michelozzo, a sculptor and architect, with whom he made a trip to Rome

after 1429. (Vasari states that Donatello went to Rome with architect Filippo Brunelleschi [1377–1446]. This would have been much earlier, perhaps in 1409; but there is no document to confirm such a trip.) With Michelozzo he produced a series of works, including the tomb of Pope John XXIII in the Baptistry, Florence, and the tomb of Cardinal Brancacci in Saint Angelo a Nilo, Naples, both of which were in progress in 1427. The first of these established a type of wall tomb (burial chamber) that would influence many later Florentine examples.

Probably just after the trip to Rome, Donatello created the well-known gilded limestone *Annunciation* tabernacle (place of worship) in Sta Croce, Florence, enclosing the pair of Gabriel and the Virgin Mary. He was also commissioned to carve a *Singing Gallery* for the Cathedral to match the one already begun by Luca della Robbia (both now in the Museo dell'Opera). Using marble and mosaic, Donatello presented a classically inspired frieze (a decorative band) of wildly inspired dancing *putti*. It was begun in 1433, completed six years later, and installed in 1450.

### Later works

Much of Donatello's later work demonstrates his understanding of classical art. For example, the bronze *David in the Bargello* is a young boy clothed only in boots and a pointed hat. This enigmatic figure is in all probability the earliest existing freestanding nude since antiquity (ancient times).

From 1443 to 1453 Donatello was in Padua, Italy, where in the Piazza del Santo he created the colossal bronze equestrian (with horse) monument to the Venetian condottiere called *Gattamelata*. It was the first

important sculptural repetition of the second-century equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius in Rome. Donatello portrayed *Gattamelata* as the ideal man of the Renaissance, a period marked by artistic awakening between the fourteenth and sixteenth centuries. Another major commission in Padua was the high altar of Saint Antonio, and was decorated with four large narrative reliefs representing the life of Saint Anthony, smaller reliefs, and seven life-sized statues in bronze, including a seated *Madonna and Child* and a bronze *Crucifixion* (a representation of Christ on the cross). Donatello had earlier made remarkable experiments with illusions of space in his large stucco medallions for the Old Sacristy of Saint Lorenzo in Florence; now his major bronze Paduan reliefs present an explosive idea of space with sketchy figures and a very excited and busy surface. The influence of these scenes on painters in northern Italy was to prove enormous and long lasting.

Back in Florence, the aged Donatello carved a haunting, unhealthy *Mary Magdalen* from poplar wood for the Baptistery (1454–1455). Romantically distorted in extreme ugliness, the figure of the saint in the wilderness originally had sun-tanned skin and gilding (a thin coat of gold) on her monstrous hair. In 1456 Donatello made an equally disturbing group in bronze of Judith cutting off the head of Holofernes. Now in the Piazza della Signoria, Florence, it was originally commissioned, apparently as a fountain, for the courtyard of the Medici Palace.

On Donatello's death on December 13, 1466, two unfinished bronze pulpits (platforms for preaching) were left in Saint Lorenzo, Florence. On one are relief panels, showing the

torture and murder of Christ by means of distorted forms and wildly emotional actions. Finished by his pupil Bertoldo di Giovanni, the pulpit scenes reveal the great master's insight into human suffering and his exploration of the dark realms of man's experience.

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## JOHN DONNE

**Born:** 1572

**London, England**

**Died:** March 31, 1631

**London, England**

*English poet and priest*

**J**ohn Donne—English poet, Anglican (Church of England) minister, and public speaker—is ranked with John Milton (1608–1674) as one of the greatest English poets. He was also a gifted artist in sermons and devotional writing.

### ***Donne's youth***

The son of a prosperous ironmonger (a person who sells iron or objects made from



John Donne.

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iron) of Welsh ancestry, John Donne was born in London, England, between January 4 and June 19 (the exact day is unknown), 1572, and was raised a Londoner and a Roman Catholic. His mother, Elizabeth, a great niece of Sir (later Saint) Thomas More (1477–1535), came from a cultured, devout family: her father, John Heywood, wrote interludes (short plays that are put on during breaks in other entertainment); her brother Jasper was a Jesuit (a person who belongs to a Roman Catholic religious group called the Society of Jesus whose members are concerned with spreading their religious message and teaching); and her son Henry, John's brother, died in 1593 of a fever caught in

Newgate Prison, where he was imprisoned for sheltering a Roman Catholic priest. Donne's father died when John was four, and his mother married a well-known physician. Donne was educated at home by Roman Catholic tutors until he was twelve years old. John and his brother Henry were then admitted to Oxford University, where he spent approximately three years.

### *Donne's poetry*

After some years at Oxford (from 1584) and possibly Cambridge, Donne studied law at Lincoln's Inn from 1592 to 1594. It was also in the 1590s that he wrote many of his love poems. He also composed poetic letters, funeral songs, and witty remarks, which were published after his death as *Songs and Sonnets*.

Donne took part in the Earl of Essex's crusades against the Spanish in Cadiz, Spain, and the Azores in 1596 and 1597 and wrote about this military experience in his poems "The Storm" and "The Calm." By 1598, when he became secretary to Sir Thomas Egerton, he left the Roman Catholic Church. In 1601 he ruined the promise of a successful career by secretly marrying Lady Egerton's niece, Ann More, a union not approved by More's father. He was dismissed from his post and temporarily imprisoned, and for about a decade he and his growing family were largely dependent on relatives and patrons.

During this middle period Donne wrote *Biathanatos*, which was published after his death by his son in 1646. His *Pseudo-Martyr* (1610) accused Roman Catholics of promoting false martyrdom (when a person or a group of people suffer or are killed for the sake of their religion) for financial gain. *Ignatius His Conclave* (1611) was popular in

both English and Latin versions: it brilliantly mocks the Jesuits but is interesting today because it reflects the new astronomy of Galileo (1564–1642) and toys with the notion of colonizing the moon.

Donne continued to write worldly poems and, about 1609 or 1610, he produced a powerful series of “Holy Sonnets,” in which he reflected on sickness, death, sin, and the love of God. In 1611 he composed two companion poems, which honored the death of little Elizabeth Drury and won him the support of her father, with whom Donne traveled to France and Germany. He briefly served as a member of Parliament in 1601 and again in 1614.

### **Church career**

In 1615 Donne was ordained (to be officially installed as a member of the clergy in the church) a priest. Selected a royal chaplain (a member of the clergy who is chosen to carry out religious duties and services for the royal court) in the same year, he also received a doctor of divinity (the study of religion) degree from Cambridge. From 1616 to 1622 he was reader in divinity at Lincoln’s Inn, where he preached regularly. He was widowed in 1617 by the death of his wife: she had borne him twelve children, five of whom died. He preached frequently at court and in 1619 was an embassy chaplain in Germany. In 1621, on James I’s (1566–1625) selection, he became dean of St. Paul’s Cathedral, attracting huge congregations with his brilliant public speaking. A serious illness in 1623 inspired his *Devotions*, which are moving meditations on sickness, death, and salvation.

On February 25, 1631, Donne left his sickbed to preach his last and most famous

sermon, “Death’s Duel.” On March 31, 1631, he died. A statue of him wrapped in funeral shrouds is preserved at St. Paul’s Cathedral. The figure is that of an old, seasoned man who has thought and suffered greatly but has achieved some peace of mind.

### **Donne’s character**

Donne’s was a complex personality, an unusual blend of passion, zeal, and brilliance; God and women were his favorite themes, but his subject otherwise ranged over the pagan (people who do not worship the Christian God) and the religious, the familiar and the unclear, the sarcastic and the sincere, the wittily bright and the religiously wise.

Largely because of Izaak Walton’s (1593–1683) charming but somewhat unreliable *Life of Dr. John Donne* (1681) and because of the risqué elements in Donne’s worldly poetry, a myth grew up contrasting his younger days as an attractive conversationalist and socialite with his older, more religious and devout self. His works reveal that he was always a serious student and a seeker after truth; and there is no sound evidence to support the myth. Certainly after his ordination he dedicated his remarkable genius wholeheartedly to the service of God and thus became one of the most brilliant stars of the Anglican priests, whose exceptional literary genius was dedicated to the glory of God and the welfare of man.

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## FYODOR DOSTOEVSKY

**Born: November 11, 1821**

**Moscow, Russia**

**Died: January 28, 1881**

**St. Petersburg, Russia**

*Russian novelist and author*

The Russian novelist Fyodor Dostoevsky was well known in his country during his life and has since been praised around the world as a writer. He is best known for writing novels that had a great understanding of psychology (the study of how the human mind works), especially the psychology of people who, losing their reason, would become insane or commit murder.

### *The young man*

Fyodor Dostoevsky was born in Moscow, Russia, on November 11, 1821, the son of a doctor. His family was very religious, and Dostoevsky was deeply religious all his life. He began reading widely when he was a youth.

He was first educated by his mother, father, and tutors, but at thirteen years old he was sent to a private school. Two years later his mother died. His father, a cruel man, was murdered in 1839, when Dostoevsky was eighteen and attending school in St. Petersburg, Russia. Dostoevsky was trained to be a military engineer, but he disliked school and loved literature. When he finished school, he turned from the career he was trained for and devoted himself to writing. His earliest letters show him to be a young man of passion and energy, as well as somewhat mentally unstable.

### *Early writings*

Dostoevsky began his career writing fiction about poor people in harsh situations. In 1843 he finished his first novel, *Poor Folk*, a social tale about a down-and-out government worker. The novel was praised by a respected critic. Dostoevsky's second novel, *The Double* (1846), was received less warmly; his later works in the 1840s were received coldly. *The Double*, however, has come to be known as his best early work, and in many ways it was ahead of its time.

The lack of success of *The Double* troubled Dostoevsky. From 1846 to 1849 his life and work were characterized by aimlessness and confusion. The short stories and novels he wrote during this period are for the most part experiments in different forms and different subject matters.

Dostoevsky's life showed some of the same pattern of uncertain experimenting. In 1847 he joined a somewhat subversive (antigovernment) group called the Petrashevsky Circle. In 1849 the members were arrested. After eight months in prison, Dostoevsky was "sentenced" to death. In reality,

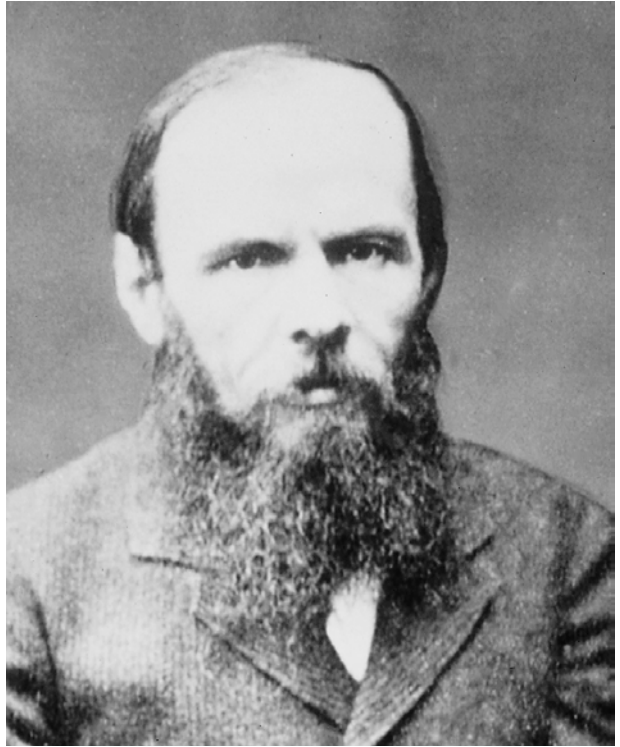
though, this sentence was only a joke. At one point, however, Dostoevsky believed he had only moments to live, and he never forgot the feelings of that experience. He was sentenced to four years in prison and four years of forced service in the army in Siberia, Russia.

### *Years of change*

Dostoevsky returned to St. Petersburg in 1859 with an unhealthy wife, Maria Issaeva, whom he had married in Siberia. Their marriage was not happy. To support himself, Dostoevsky edited the journal *Time* with his brother Mikhail and wrote a number of fictional works. In 1861 he published *Memoirs from the House of the Dead*, a work of fiction based on his experiences in prison. By and large his writings during this period showed no great artistic advance over his early work and gave no hint of the greatness that came forth in 1864 with his *Notes from the Underground*.

Dostoevsky's life during this period was characterized by poor health, poverty, and complicated emotional situations. He fell in love with the young student Polina Suslova and carried on a frustrating affair with her for several years. He traveled outside the country in 1862 and 1863 to get away from the people to whom he owed money, to improve his health, and to gamble.

*Notes from the Underground* is a short novel. In this work Dostoevsky attempts to justify the existence of individual freedom as a necessary part of humankind. He argues against the view that man is a creature of reason and that society can be organized in a way that guarantees the happiness of humans. He insists that humans desire freedom more than happiness, but he also sees that unchecked freedom is a destructive force, since there is



*Fyodor Dostoevsky.*

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no guarantee that humans will use freedom in a constructive way. Indeed, the evidence of history suggests that humans seek the destruction of others and of themselves.

### *The great novels*

Dostoevsky's first wife died in 1864, and in the following year he married Anna Grigorievna Snitkina. She was practical and even-tempered, and therefore she was the very opposite of his first wife and his lover. There is very little doubt that she was largely responsible for introducing better conditions for his work by taking over many of the practical tasks that he hated and handled badly.

In 1866 Dostoevsky published *Crime and Punishment*, which is the most popular of his great novels, perhaps because it is appealing on different levels. It can be read as a serious and complex work of art, but it can also be enjoyed as a gripping detective story. The novel is concerned with the murder of an old woman by a student, Raskolnikov, while he is committing robbery in an attempt to help his family and his own career. The murder occurs at the very beginning of the novel, and the rest of the book has to do with the pursuit of Raskolnikov by the detective Porfiry and by his own conscience. In the end he gives himself up and decides to accept the punishment for his act.

The Dostoevskys traveled in 1867 and remained away from Russia for more than four years. Their economic condition was very difficult, and Dostoevsky repeatedly lost what little money they had while gambling. *The Idiot* was written between 1867 and 1869, and Dostoevsky stated that in this work he intended to portray “the wholly beautiful man.” The hero of the novel is a good man who attempts to live in a society gone wrong, and it is uncertain whether he succeeds.

Dostoevsky began writing *The Possessed* (also translated as *The Devils*) in 1870 and published it in 1871–1872. The novel began as a political pamphlet and was based on a political murder that took place in Moscow on November 21, 1869. In *The Possessed* Dostoevsky raises a minor event to great importance. Many readers see *The Possessed* not only as an accurate account of the politics of the time, but also as a visionary statement on the future of politics in Russia and elsewhere.

*The Brothers Karamazov* (1879–1880) is the greatest of Dostoevsky’s novels. The psy-

chologist Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) ranked it as one of the greatest artistic achievements of all time. The novel is about four sons and their guilt in the murder of their father, Fyodor. Each of the sons may be characterized by a major trait: Dmitri by passion, Ivan by reason, Alyosha by spirit, and Smerdyakov by everything that is ugly in human nature. Smerdyakov kills his father, but to a degree the other three brothers are guilty in thought and desire.

Dostoevsky sent the last part of *The Brothers Karamazov* to his publisher on November 8, 1880, and he died soon afterward, on January 28, 1881. At the time of his death he was at the height of his career in Russia, and many Russians mourned his death. He had begun to win praise in Europe as well, and interest in him has continued to increase.

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FREDERICK  
DOUGLASS

**Born: February 1817**  
**Maryland**

Died: February 20, 1895

Washington, D.C.

*African American abolitionist and publisher*

The most important African American abolitionist (opponent of slavery) in pre-Civil War America, Frederick Douglass was the first nationally known African American leader in U.S. history.

### ***Growing up without freedom***

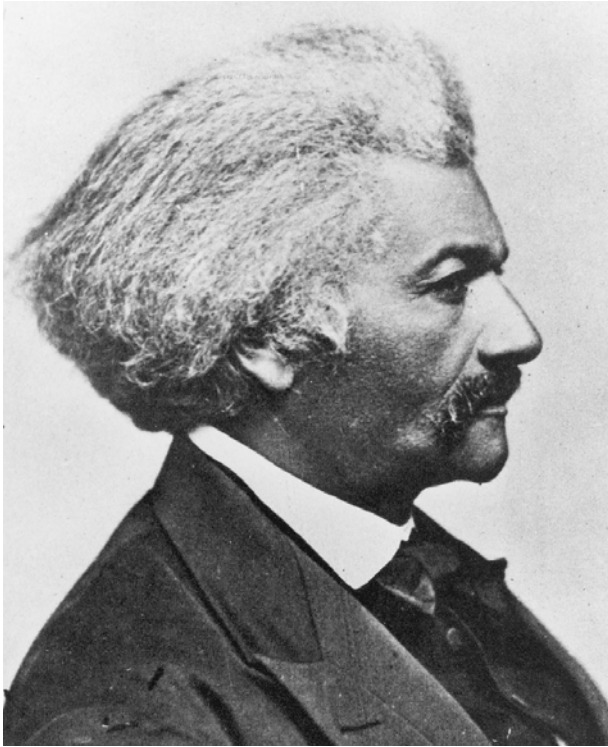
Frederick Douglass was born in February 1817 on the eastern shore of Maryland. His exact date of birth remains unknown. His mother, from whom he was separated at an early age, was a slave named Harriet Bailey. She named her son Frederick Augustus Washington Bailey. He never knew or saw his father. Frederick took the name Douglass much later. As a slave, Douglass was not allowed to have much of a childhood. He was separated from his parents, and he was forced to work hard and suffered cruel treatment while working on the property of Captain Aaron Anthony. In 1825 Anthony, who often hired his slaves out to others, decided to send Douglass to Baltimore, Maryland, to live with a man named Hugh Auld and his family.

Douglass's life improved somewhat while working for the Aulds. Mrs. Auld was a northerner, and northern slaveholders generally did not treat their slaves as badly as people in the South did. She even taught young Douglass the basics of reading and writing until her husband stopped her. Even though things were a little better than they had been, Douglass was still unhappy with his situation and began to think of ways to change it.

### ***Escape from slavery***

After the death of Captain Anthony, Douglass became the property of Anthony's son-in-law. He was then hired out to a professional slave breaker, a man who would beat and mistreat slaves until they gave up and did whatever they were told. After weeks of being whipped, Douglass finally fought back; after that the whippings stopped. The Aulds then brought him back to Baltimore and put him to work in the shipyards. There in 1838 he borrowed the identification papers of an African American sailor. By passing himself off as the sailor, he was able to escape to New York. He adopted the name Douglass and married a free African American woman from the South. They settled in New Bedford, Massachusetts, where several of their children were born.

Douglass tried to make a living doing manual labor, and he quickly became involved in the antislavery movement that was gaining strength in the North. In 1841, at an abolitionist meeting in Nantucket, Massachusetts, he delivered a moving speech about his experiences as a slave and was immediately hired by the Massachusetts Antislavery Society to give lectures. Douglass was an eloquent speaker; that is, his speeches were well thought out and forceful, and he was able to inspire those who heard him. Some Harvard students who had heard him speak were so impressed that they persuaded him to write an autobiography (the story of his life). *The Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass* was published in 1845. (Ten years later an enlarged autobiography, *My Bondage and My Freedom*, appeared. His third autobiography, *Life and Times of Frederick Douglass*, was published in 1881 and enlarged in 1892.) Pub-



*Frederick Douglass.*

*Courtesy of the National Archives and  
Records Administration.*

lishing the book was a dangerous move for Douglass, since it called attention to him and placed him in danger of being recaptured and returned to slavery.

Fearing capture, Douglass fled to Britain, staying from 1845 to 1847 to speak on behalf of abolition and to earn enough money to purchase his freedom once he returned to America. Upon his return Douglass settled in Rochester, New York, and started a newspaper, *North Star*, which called for an end to slavery. The paper would continue to be published under various names until 1863. In 1858, as a result of his fame and position as

the voice of African Americans, Douglass was sought out by abolitionist John Brown (1800–1859). Brown asked Douglass to help him in an attack on an arsenal in Harpers Ferry, Virginia, which he thought would help the antislavery cause. Douglass, however, could see no benefit from Brown's plan and refused to lend his support.

### ***Civil War and Reconstruction***

With the beginning of the Civil War (1861–1865), a war between Northern and Southern states in which the main issues were slavery and the Southern states' decision to leave the Union and form an independent nation, Douglass insisted that African Americans should be allowed to fight. After all, they would be fighting for their own freedom. In 1863, as a result of Douglass's continued urging, President Abraham Lincoln (1809–1865) asked him to recruit African American soldiers for the Union (Northern) army. As the war proceeded, Douglass had several meetings with Lincoln to discuss the use and treatment of African American soldiers by the Union forces. As a result, the role of African American soldiers was upgraded each time, making them a more effective force in the fight.

The end of the Civil War and the freeing of the slaves did not mean that Douglass was able to rest. The Reconstruction period, as the years after the Civil War came to be known, presented a new set of challenges for the country. While slavery had ended, the racism (unequal treatment based on race) that went along with slavery was still in place. Some Southerners even went to court to try to overturn the slaves' emancipation (freedom). In 1870 Douglass and his sons began

publishing the *New National Era* newspaper in Washington, D.C. He used the newspaper to make statements on these issues.

### Later years

In 1877 Douglass was appointed by President Rutherford B. Hayes (1822–1893) to the post of U.S. marshal for the District of Columbia. From this time until approximately two years before his death Douglass held a succession of offices, including that of recorder of deeds for the District of Columbia and minister to the Republic of Haiti. He resigned his assignment in Haiti when he discovered that American businessmen were taking advantage of his position in their dealings with the Haitian government.

Frederick Douglass died in Washington, D.C., on February 20, 1895. He had played a major role in changing history. After reaching his goal of escaping slavery, he could have lived out his days as a free man. Instead he risked it all by speaking out in favor of freedom and improved treatment for all African Americans.

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## ARTHUR CONAN DOYLE

**Born:** May 22, 1859

**Edinburgh, Scotland**

**Died:** July 6, 1930

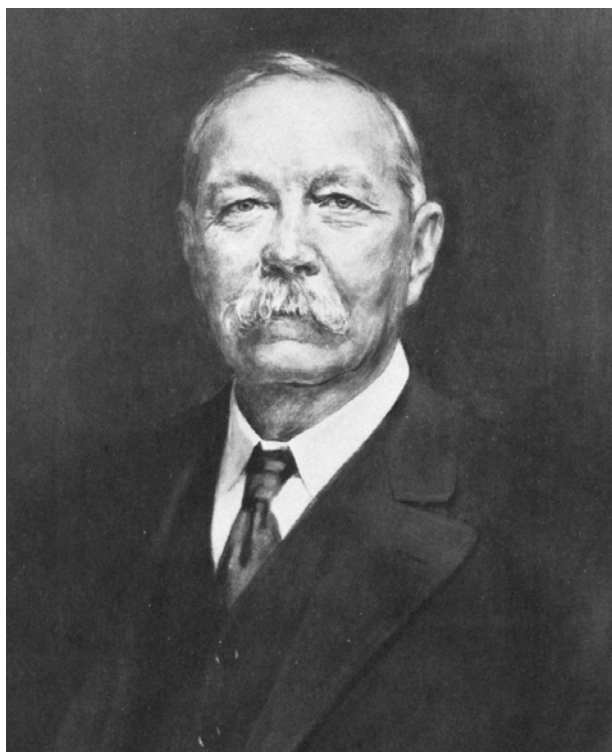
**Crowborough, Sussex, England**

*Scottish author, surgeon, and ophthalmologist*

A renowned English author, Sir Arthur Conan Doyle is best remembered as the creator of the famous detective Sherlock Holmes.

### Doyle's youth, education, and early career

Arthur Conan Doyle was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, on May 22, 1859, into an Irish Roman Catholic family of noted artistic achievement. His mother, Mary Doyle, was a major influence in his life. She taught him to be a gentleman in his youth and as his writing career progressed she would give him ideas for his stories. His father, Charles, was an architect in Edinburgh, as well as an amateur artist. Together they had eight children.



Arthur Conan Doyle.

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As a boy, Arthur was educated at a Catholic preparatory school. After attending Stonyhurst College, he entered Edinburgh University as a medical student in 1876 and received a doctor of medicine degree in 1885. In his spare time, however, he began to write stories, which were published anonymously (without a name) in various magazines from 1878 to 1880.

After two long sea voyages as a ship's doctor, Doyle practiced medicine at Southsea, England, from 1882 to 1890. In 1885 he married Louise Hawkins and in March 1891 moved his young family to London, where he began to specialize in ophthalmology (the area of medi-

cine involving the eye). His practice remained small, however, and since one of his anonymous stories, "Habakuk Jephson's Statement," had enjoyed considerable success when it appeared in the *Cornhill Magazine* in 1884, he began to dedicate himself seriously to writing.

### ***Sherlock Holmes is introduced***

Doyle's first novel, *A Study in Scarlet*, introduced Sherlock Holmes to the reading public. This was followed by two historical novels, *Micah Clarke* in 1889 and *The White Company* in 1891. The success of these works led Doyle to abandon medicine and launch his career as a writer.

The second Sherlock Holmes novel, *The Sign of the Four* (1890), was followed by the Holmes short story, "A Scandal in Bohemia" (1891). The popularity of these tales made others like them a regular monthly feature of the *Strand Magazine*, and the *Adventures of Sherlock Holmes* series was begun. Doyle eventually tired of these stories, and in "The Final Problem," published in December 1893, plunged Holmes and his enemy, Moriarty, to their apparent deaths in the falls of Reichenbach. Nine years later, however, he published a third Sherlock Holmes novel, *The Hound of the Baskervilles*, but dated the adventure before Holmes's "death." Then, in October 1903, Holmes achieved his mysterious comeback from death in "The Empty House" and thereafter appeared occasionally until 1927. All told, Doyle wrote fifty-six Sherlock Holmes stories and four novels. *The Valley of Fear* (1914) was the last.

### ***Other early works***

Among other works published early in Doyle's career were *Beyond the City* (1892), a

short novel of modern city life; *The Great Shadow* (1892), a historical novel of the Napoleonic period; *The Refugees* (1893), a historical novel about French Huguenots; and *The Stark Munro Letters* (1894), an autobiographical (having to do with one's life) novel. In 1896 he issued one of his best-known historical novels, *Rodney Stone*, which was followed by another historical novel, *Uncle Bernac* (1897); a collection of poems, *Songs of Action* (1898); and two less popular novels, *The Tragedy of Korosko* (1898) and *A Duet* (1899).

### **Nonfiction and later career**

After the outbreak of the Boer War (1899–1902; a war between the British and the northern natives or Boers of South Africa for control of the area, which the British won), Doyle served as chief, or head, surgeon of a field hospital at Bloemfontein, South Africa, in 1900. His *The Great Boer War* (1900) was widely read and praised for its fairness to both sides. In 1902 he wrote a long booklet, *The War in South Africa: Its Cause and Conduct*, to defend the British action in South Africa against widespread criticism by peace-minded groups. In August 1902 Doyle was knighted for his service to England.

Doyle published *Sir Nigel* (1906), a popular historical novel of the Middle Ages. His wife died this same year of tuberculosis (an infectious disease that affects the lungs); and in 1907 Doyle married Jean Leckie. Doyle now took up a number of political and charitable causes. In 1909 he wrote *Divorce Law Reform*, supporting equal rights for women in British law, and *The Crime of the Congo*, attacking the mistreatment of that colony by

Belgium. In 1911 he published a second collection of poems, *Songs of the Road*, and in 1912 began a series of science fiction stories with the novel *The Lost World*, featuring another of his famous characters, Professor Challenger.

After the outbreak of World War I (1914–18; a war between the German-led Central Powers and the Allies: France, England, Italy, the United States, and other nations), Doyle organized the Civilian National Reserve against the threat of German invasion. In 1916 he published *A Visit to Three Fronts* and in 1918 again toured the front lines. These tours, plus extensive communication with a number of officers, enabled him to write his famous account *The British Campaigns in France and Flanders*, published in six volumes (1916–1919).

### **Later life and spiritualism**

Doyle had been interested in spiritualism (the belief in the ability for the living to communicate with the dead) since he rejected his Roman Catholic faith in 1880. In 1915 he experienced a new belief in “psychic religion,” or spiritualism, so that after the war he devoted the rest of his life and career to spreading his new faith in a series of works: *The New Revelation* (1918), *The Vital Message* (1919), *The Wanderings of a Spiritualist* (1921), and *History of Spiritualism* (1926). After travelling for years to promote this cause, Sir Arthur Conan Doyle died on July 6, 1930, of a heart attack, at his home in Crowborough, Sussex.

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## FRANCIS DRAKE

**Born:** c. 1541

**Tavistock, England**

**Died:** January 28, 1596

**Puerto Bello, Honduras**

*English navigator and ship captain*

The English navigator Sir Francis Drake was the first of his countrymen to sail around the world. His daring adventures at sea helped to establish England's naval supremacy over Spain and other European nations.

### ***Forced from home***

Francis Drake, the eldest son of a farmer, was born near Tavistock, Devonshire, England. His father, Robert Drake, later became a preacher and raised his twelve children as Protestants (followers of the Christian religion who are not part of the Roman Catholic Church). Raised in a poor environment, Drake's family, like many Protestants, was forced from their home after a Catholic uprising. Young Drake soon developed a hatred for Catholics, especially those from Spain, Europe's most powerful Catholic country.

Drake received some education, and he later learned the basics of navigation (getting a ship from one place to another by plotting position and direction) and seamanship and did some sailing near his home. The Drakes were related to the Hawkins family of Plymouth, England, who were well-to-do seamen and shipowners. The Hawkins connection got Drake a place on a 1566 slave-trading voyage to the Cape Verde Islands in Africa and the Spanish Main (South America's northern coast).

### ***First command***

In 1567 John Hawkins (1532–1595) made Drake an officer in a larger slave-trading voyage. Drake ultimately was given command of one of Hawkins's ships, the *Judith*, and accompanied his relative to Africa, Rio de la Hacha, and Santa Marta (a port on the coast of northern Colombia). The English were caught, however, in the harbor of San Juan de Ulúa (an island near Veracruz in eastern Mexico) by a Spanish fleet that opened fire without warning and destroyed most of their ships. Only Drake's *Judith* and Hawkins's small vessel escaped to England. Angered by this, Drake decided to devote his life to war against Spain.

By 1576 England's relations with Spain had worsened. Drake returned to England, where a new expedition (a voyage made for a specific reason, such as to discover a new route or area) was being planned and in which Queen Elizabeth (1533–1603) had a financial share. Drake's main instructions were to sail through the Strait of Magellan (a narrow waterway in the southern tip of Argentina) and probe the shores of Terra Australis Incognita, the great southern continent

that many thought began with Tierra del Fuego. Drake received five ships, the largest being the *Pelican* (later named the *Golden Hind*), and a crew of about 160.

### ***Adventures on the Golden Hind***

The fleet left Plymouth in December 1577 for the southern Atlantic, stopping at Port San Julián in southern Argentina for the southern hemisphere winter. Ferdinand Magellan (c.1480–1521) had once crushed a mutiny (rebellion) there, and Drake did the same.

When Drake passed through the strait and entered the Pacific Ocean, only the *Golden Hind* remained; the other ships had been lost or had parted company. Bad winds forced him southward, and he perhaps sighted Cape Horn (the very southern tip of South America). In any event, he realized that the two oceans came together and that Terra Australis would not be found there. He traveled along the coasts of Chile and Peru, capturing and destroying Spanish ships but sparing Spanish lives.

Drake's trip around the world continued through the Indian Ocean and the Cape of Good Hope (the southern tip of Africa). Drake arrived in Plymouth in 1580, praised by the public and the queen. In April 1581 he was knighted on the deck of the *Golden Hind*.

### ***Spanish Armada***

As relations between England and Spain grew even worse, Queen Elizabeth unleashed Drake on the Spaniards in 1585 and 1586. Drake captured several Spanish cities and inflicted great damage on Spanish morale. Now there was no avoiding formal war. Philip II (1527–1598) began assembling his



*Francis Drake.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Armada (a fleet of warships) in Portugal, which had been in his possession since 1580.

Queen Elizabeth appointed Lord Charles Howard of Effingham commander of her fleet and gave Drake, Hawkins, and Martin Frobisher supporting posts. Drake called for a strong blow at Philip's unprepared Armada and received permission to strike. In April 1587 he recklessly sailed into Cadiz and destroyed or captured thirty-seven enemy ships. He then occupied the Portuguese town of Sagres for a time and finally, in the Azores (a group of islands in the North Atlantic), seized a large Portuguese carrack (ship) with a rich cargo bound homeward from Goa.

Drake met with his first major defeat in 1589, when he commanded the naval expedition sent to take Lisbon, Portugal. Drake did not go to sea again for five years. He concerned himself mainly with Plymouth matters. He sat in Parliament (England's governing body), but nothing of note marked his presence there.

### *Final voyage*

In 1595 Queen Elizabeth thought she saw a chance of ending the war victoriously by cutting off the Spanish treasure supply from the Isthmus of Panama (a thin piece of land that connects North America to South America). For this she selected Hawkins, then sixty-three, and Drake, in his fifties. The queen ordered that they must be back in six months, which was barely enough time to capture Panama. Hawkins soon died, leaving Drake in sole command. The Spaniards had strengthened their defenses, and Drake failed to capture the city.

After failed expeditions to capture Nombre de Dios (a port on the northern coast of Panama) and then Panama, Drake cruised aimlessly to Honduras and back and then fell ill of fever and dysentery (infection of the intestines). He died off Puerto Bello on January 28, 1596, and was buried at sea.

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## ALEXANDRE DUMAS

**Born:** July 24, 1802

Soissons, France

**Died:** December 5, 1870

Puys, France

*French author, playwright, and novelist*

Alexandre Dumas, the French author of many plays, popular romances, and historical novels, wrote *The Three Musketeers* and *The Count of Monte Cristo*.

### *Early life*

Alexandre Dumas was born on July 24, 1802, near Soissons, France, the son of a Creole general of the French Revolutionary armies. His grandfather was from a noble family, and his grandmother had been a Dominican slave. Dumas's father died when he was four years old, leaving the family with very little money. Dumas was not a very good student, but his handwriting was noticeably beautiful, and he studied to work as a notary (a public officer who witnesses the signing of important documents and makes them official). He also began writing musical comedies and then historical plays in collaboration (working together with others) with a poet friend named Adolphe de Leuven. Historical subjects, as well as his ability to collaborate, were to be permanent elements of Dumas's work during his career.

Dumas then found work as a secretary to the Duke of Orléans (later King Louis Philippe, 1773–1850) in Paris, France. He read and attended the theater as much as he could during his time off. He was greatly

influenced by the works of William Shakespeare (1564–1616) and wrote his first plays in 1825 and 1826. Others followed, with *Henri III et sa cour* (1829) bringing him great success and popularity. The revolution of 1830 slowed down Dumas's writing, and he became a strong supporter of the Marquis de Lafayette. His political activities were viewed unfavorably by the new king, his former boss, and he was forced to leave France for a time. A series of amusing travel books resulted from this period of exile.

### His fiction

When Dumas returned to Paris, he began writing a new series of historical plays. By 1851 he had written alone, or in collaboration with others, more than twenty plays. He also began writing fiction at this time, first short stories and then novels. In collaboration with Auguste Maquet he wrote *Les Trois Mousquetaires* (1844; *The Three Musketeers*), *Vingt Ans après* (1845; *Twenty Years After*), and *Le Vicomte de Bragelonne* (1850). *Le Comte de Monte-Cristo* (1846; *The Count of Monte Cristo*) was also a product of this period.

Dumas worked with many collaborators who helped him with the outlines of his romances. The scale of his “fiction factory” has often been exaggerated. Although at least a thousand works were published under his own name, most were due to his own hard work and amazing imagination. Dumas's works were received with enthusiasm by his loyal readers, and he earned a lot of money. He could never earn enough to keep up with his spending habits, however. Among his problems was his estate of Monte-Cristo in Saint-Germain-en-Laye, France, which

attracted many hangers-on and female admirers who Dumas ended up supporting.

### Later life

Dumas, who had never changed his political opinions, was pleased by the Revolution of 1848 and even ran as a candidate for the Assembly. In 1850 the Théâtre-Historique, which he had founded to present his plays, failed. After Napoleon III (1808–1873) took power in 1852, Dumas went to Brussels, Belgium, where his secretary managed to straighten out his affairs to a degree. Here he continued to write constantly.

In 1853 Dumas returned to Paris and began the daily paper *Le Mousquetaire*, which was devoted to art and literature. The paper survived until 1857, and Dumas then published the weekly paper *Monte-Cristo*. This in turn folded after three years. In 1860 he was named keeper of museums in Naples, Italy. After remaining there for four years, he returned to Paris, where he found himself deep in debt and regularly chased by debt collectors. He also had many women friends who expected—and received—expensive gifts from him.

Working hard to pay his debts, Dumas produced a number of works of lower quality, among them *Madame de Chamblay* (1863) and *Les Mohicans de Paris* (1864), which were not very successful. His unhappy last years were softened by the presence of his son, Alexandre, and his daughter, Madame Petel. (The elder Alexandre Dumas is generally called Dumas *père* to distinguish him from his son, known as Dumas *fils*, who was also a dramatist and novelist.) Dumas *père* died in poverty on December 5, 1870.

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## PAUL LAURENCE DUNBAR

**Born:** June 27, 1872

**Dayton, Ohio**

**Died:** February 9, 1906

**Dayton, Ohio**

*African American poet and novelist*

**P**aul Laurence Dunbar, a poet and novelist, was the first African American author to gain national recognition and a wide popular audience. His writings portray the African American life of his era. He especially focused on African American accomplishments and pride.

**Youth and education**

Paul Laurence Dunbar was born on June 27, 1872, in Dayton, Ohio, the son of two former slaves. Both of his parents enjoyed reading. His mother taught Dunbar to read when he was four years old. In 1886 Dunbar entered Central High School in Dayton as the only African American student in his class,

and he made many Caucasian (white) friends. He received a formal education in high school, graduating in 1891. He excelled as a student, serving as editor of the school newspaper and as class poet. In 1890 he attempted to start a newspaper for African American readers. Unable to go to college after graduating from high school and experiencing racial discrimination (or unfair treatment based solely on race), Dunbar began looking for work in a law office, but eventually took a job as an elevator operator. He never gave up his desire to become a writer, however, and he was able to publish some of his poems in newspapers.

**His first books**

Dunbar published his first book of poems, *Oak and Ivy*, in 1893 with his own money, and his second book, *Majors and Minors*, two years later. William Dean Howells, then one of America's most distinguished literary critics (a person who writes about and judges the writings of other people), read the second book and urged the young poet to concentrate on black dialect verse, or poems written using an African American style of English.

With the 1896 publication of *Lyrics of Lowly Life*, for which Howells wrote a very positive review, Dunbar's professional career got a fabulous start. His works began to sell well enough for him to earn his living as a writer. He took Howells's advice to study the "moods and traits of his own race in its own accents of our English," so that his art was best shown in those "pieces which . . . described the range between [desire] and emotion . . . which is the range of the race."

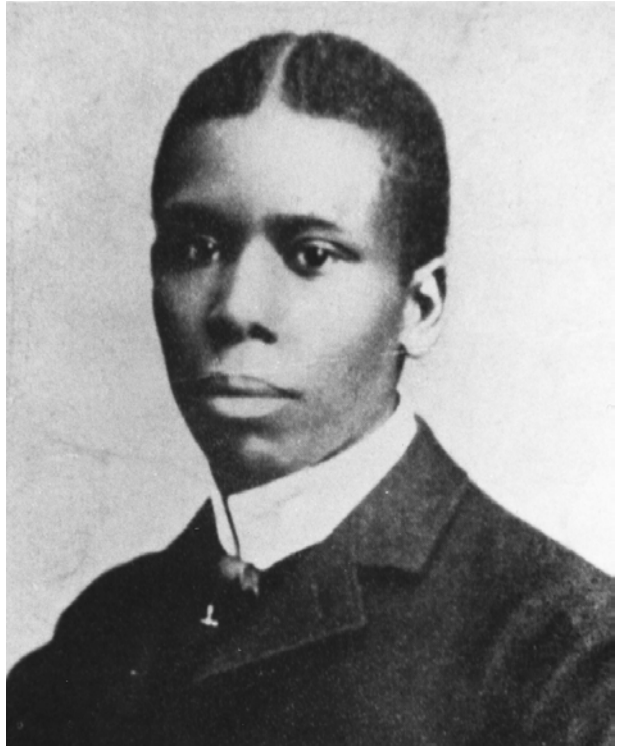
Dunbar wanted to satisfy the popular taste for the light, the romantic, the comic,

and the sentimental. His short stories, which began appearing in popular magazines in the 1890s, often depicted African American folk characters, Southern scenes, and humorous situations. His first novel, *The Uncalled* (1898), like two of the three that followed—*The Love of Landry* (1900) and *The Fanatics* (1901)—is a sentimental tale about white people. His last long work of fiction, *The Sport of the Gods* (1902), is notable only for his failure to realize the possibilities in the story of a rural African American family becoming city people.

### **Last years**

In 1898 Dunbar married Alice Moore, but they had an unhappy marriage. The couple separated in 1901, when Dunbar went to Washington, D.C., to consult for the Library of Congress. He was also unhappy with his writings. At this time he confided to a friend, “I see now very clearly that Mr. Howells has done me [irreversible] harm in the [command] he laid down regarding my dialect verse.”

Dunbar was suffering from tuberculosis (a lung disease) and tried all the “cures.” Alcohol brought temporary relief, but he became addicted. Nonetheless he continued to produce short stories and poems. Sick and discouraged by the unimpressive reception of *The Heart of Happy Hollow* (1904), a collection of short stories, and of *Lyrics of Love and Sunshine* (1905), which contains some of his best verses in pure English, he returned to Dayton, where he died on February 9, 1906. The *Complete Poems of Paul Laurence Dunbar* (1913; still in print) shows how well he succeeded in capturing many elements of African American life.



*Paul Laurence Dunbar.*

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## PIERRE DU PONT

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**Born:** January 15, 1870

**Wilmington, Delaware**

**Died:** April 5, 1954

**Wilmington, Delaware**

*American industrialist and businessman*

The American industrialist (one who owns or manages an industry) Pierre du Pont, as chairman of the board of E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company, was among those responsible for the company's huge success in the twentieth century.

### *Early life*

Pierre Samuel du Pont was born in Wilmington, Delaware, on January 15, 1870. He was one of Lammot du Pont and Mary Belin's eleven children. His father, who had broken away from the family business of producing gunpowder for use in ammunition, was an important figure in the early production of dynamite. Pierre du Pont was fourteen years old when his father died in an explosion. Afterward he took over responsibility for the family, leading several of his brothers to refer to him as "Dad."

After receiving a bachelor's degree from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1890, du Pont became a chemist in the family firm. In 1899 he took over as president of the Johnson Company in Lorain, Ohio, working with a cousin, Coleman du Pont, and finding a sharp assistant named John J. Raskob. The company was eventually sold, and in 1902 du Pont, his cousin Coleman, and another cousin, Alfred du

Pont, purchased and reorganized the family business to prevent it from being sold to a rival firm. Raskob came along as du Pont's assistant.

### *Management of the business*

Du Pont and his cousins quickly expanded and improved the company. Competing explosive-making companies were bought out, factories were improved, and research laboratories were set up. Workers had to be able to do their jobs; members of the family were not guaranteed anything because of their names. The company made a successful change from a family operation to one run by professional managers. The new company structure divided authority between central management and the operating departments. Management concentrated on long-term policy decision making, while the operating departments handled day-to-day problems. Pierre du Pont, with Raskob's help, established new recordkeeping and monitoring methods that were copied by many other companies.

After Coleman du Pont became involved in other businesses, Pierre du Pont became president of the firm in 1915, an office he held until he became chairman of the board in 1919. (Alfred du Pont was removed from the corporation after opposing Pierre's purchase of Coleman's interest in the company.) Pierre remained as chairman until 1940. He guided the company through its enormous expansion during World War I (1914–18) and its later involvement in products outside the explosives industry such as coal, natural gas, and chemicals for industrial and farm use. He also acquired several newspapers in Delaware.

The Du Pont Company first invested in the General Motors Company in 1917 at the urging of Raskob. Three years later William C. Durant, president of General Motors, found himself in financial (money-related) difficulty. Because possible failure of General Motors might have hurt Du Pont's investment, the Du Pont Company bailed out Durant, but in the process the company took over all of his holdings in General Motors. As a result, although he was not thrilled with the position, Pierre du Pont became president of General Motors and occupied that office until 1923, when Alfred P. Sloan, Jr. replaced him.

### ***Other activities***

Du Pont was also active in public affairs. He held numerous offices in the state government of Delaware, including tax commissioner. Initially a supporter of Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945), du Pont was a strong opponent of government involvement in business affairs, and as a result he opposed Roosevelt's reelection in 1936. He was one of the founders of the American Liberty League, which unsuccessfully appealed to voters to defeat Roosevelt's New Deal (his plan to expand the functions of the federal government in an attempt to provide jobs for the unemployed and carry out social reforms). Du Pont felt that many of the provisions of the plan represented a taking away of individual freedoms.

Du Pont died in Wilmington on April 5, 1954. He had shown great vision in helping make the Du Pont Company one of the most successful companies in the twentieth century. Through his public works and donations to various charities, he showed a concern for the greater good of society.

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## FRANÇOIS DUVALIER

**Born:** April 14, 1907

**Port-au-Prince, Haiti**

**Died:** April 21, 1971

**Port-au-Prince, Haiti**

*Haitian president and physician*

**F**rançois Duvalier was the president of Haiti from 1957 until his death. Trained as a physician and known to his people as “Papa Doc,” Duvalier ruled his country as no other Haitian chief executive had, using violence and phony elections to hold down any opposition.

### *Early life*

François Duvalier was born in Port-au-Prince, Haiti, on April 14, 1907. His family belonged to the middle class. His grandfather had been a tailor, and his father was a school-teacher and municipal court judge. Duvalier believed that his people’s African traditions should be preserved and protected from the influence of European countries. He was one of the founders of the Haitian intellectual Griot movement of the 1930s, whose members celebrated their African roots and even the practice of voodoo (a religion involving communication with spirits) as important elements of Haitian culture. Duvalier graduated in 1934 from the Haitian National University Medical School. In 1939 he married Simone Ovide, a nurse, and they had three daughters and a son.

Duvalier was active in sanitary programs initiated in Haiti by the U.S. army during World War II (1939–45) to prevent yaws, a

contagious tropical disease. In 1944–45 he studied at the University of Michigan. After returning to Haiti, he became minister of health and labor in the government of President Dumarsais Estimé, who had once taught Duvalier in high school. After opposing the takeover of the government by Paul Magloire in 1950, Duvalier returned to the practice of medicine, especially the campaigns to prevent yaws and other diseases. In 1954 he abandoned medicine and went into hiding in the Haitian countryside. In 1956 the Magloire government forgave all of its political opponents. Duvalier immediately emerged from hiding and declared his candidacy for the next elections.

### *Rise to power*

Duvalier had a solid base of support in the countryside, and his campaign was similar to those of the other candidates in that they all promised to rebuild the country and give it a new start. Duvalier, however, made various deals with one or more of the other candidates, won the army over to his side, and finally defeated Louis Déjoie, his main opponent, in what turned out to be the quietest and most honest election in Haiti’s history.

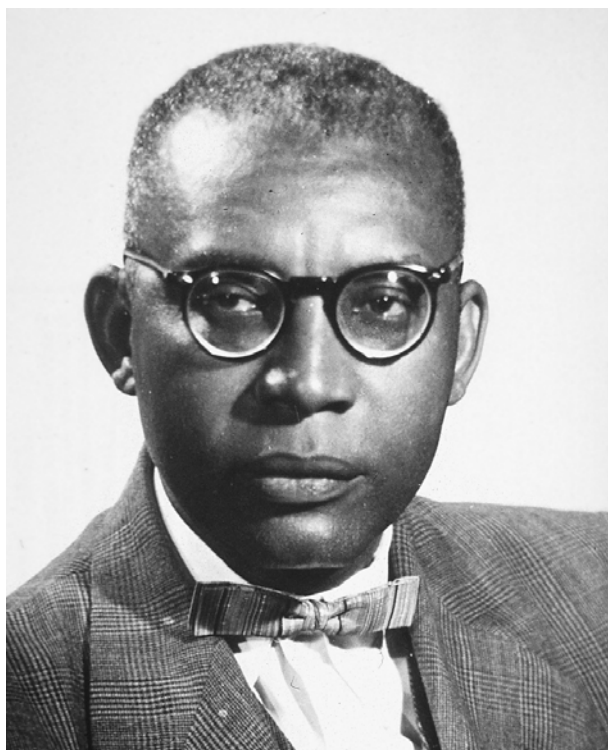
In spite of this favorable start, Duvalier’s government was burdened with many problems. The defeated candidates refused to cooperate with him and, from hiding, encouraged acts of violence and disobedience against the new president. After Fidel Castro (1927–) came to power in Cuba, that country began to harbor Haitian refugees who had escaped the increasingly harsh conditions of the Duvalier government. In addition, General Rafael Trujillo (1891–1961), dictator

(military ruler) of the Dominican Republic and enemy of Castro, feared a Cuban invasion through Haiti, and this concern led to Dominican interference in Haitian affairs.

### *Abuse of power*

It was during this period that Duvalier created an organization directly responsible to him, the Tontons Macoutes (also known as “Bogeymen”), the Haitian version of a secret police. Through the late 1950s to the middle 1960s this force continued to grow and was responsible for terrorizing and assassinating anyone thought to be an opponent of Duvalier. In the 1961 elections Duvalier altered the ballots to have his name placed at the top. Afterward he announced that his victory gave him another six years in office. In the words of the *New York Times* of May 13, 1961, “Latin America has witnessed many fraudulent (fake) elections . . . but none will have been more outrageous than the one which has just taken place in Haiti.”

After the 1961 elections the American government made it clear that the United States disputed the truth of the results and that Duvalier’s legal term should end in 1963. During 1962 the American Agency for International Development (AID) mission was withdrawn from Haiti, and by April 1963 an American fleet moved into position close to Port-au-Prince. On May 15, to show its disapproval of Duvalier’s continued presence, the United States suspended diplomatic relations with Haiti, refusing to engage it in discussions of international matters. At the same time, relations between Haiti and the Dominican Republic were getting worse, and Duvalier’s main enemy, Dominican President Juan Bosch, was threatening to invade Haiti.



*François Duvalier.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

Even the Organization of the American States (OAS) became involved, sending a fact-finding mission to Haiti. However, Duvalier remained firmly in control, the Dominicans backed down, and Haiti went back to business as usual.

### *President for life*

After the election of 1961 and the continuation of Duvalier’s rule in 1963, many observers felt it was only a matter of time before Duvalier moved to have himself installed as permanent Haitian president. On April 1, 1964, that was exactly what happened. The Legislative Chamber, which did

whatever Duvalier wanted, rewrote the 1957 constitution, making a point of changing Article 197 so that Duvalier could be declared president for life. A “vote” on the new constitution was held, and on June 22, 1964, Duvalier was officially named president for life.

After that time Haitian political life was a little calmer. Having taken over his country and holding off the United States, the OAS, and the Dominican Republic in the process, Duvalier was in complete control. During the 1960s he survived several damaging hurricanes and numerous attempts to overthrow him. A small, gray-haired man, Duvalier began suffering from heart disease and other health problems. In January 1971 he directed the National

Assembly to change the constitution to allow his son, Jean Claude Duvalier (1951–), to succeed him. Duvalier died on April 21, 1971, and his son immediately took over.

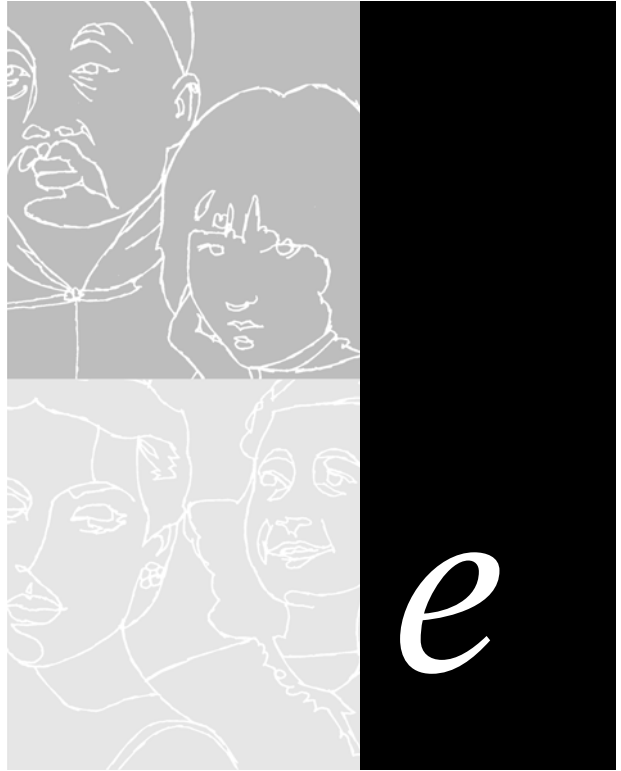
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## AMELIA EARHART

**Born:** July 24, 1897

**Atchison, Kansas**

**Died:** c. 1937

*American pilot and women's rights activist*

**T**he American aviator Amelia Earhart remains the world's best-known woman pilot even long after her mysterious disappearance during a round-the-world flight in 1937.

### *Childhood in the Midwest*

Amelia Mary Earhart was born on July 24, 1897, the daughter of Edwin and Amy

Otis Earhart. Until she was twelve she lived with her wealthy maternal grandparents, Alfred and Amelia Harres Otis, in Atchison, Kansas, where she attended a private school. Her summers were spent in Kansas City, Missouri, where her lawyer-father worked for the Rock Island Railroad.

In 1909 Amelia and her younger sister, Muriel, went to live with their parents in Des Moines, Iowa, where the railroad had transferred her father. While in Des Moines, Earhart saw her first airplane while visiting a state fair. Because it had been only a few years since the Wright Brothers (Wilbur, 1867–1912; Orville, 1871–1948) made their first flight at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, young Earhart was not overly impressed with what she saw at the fair.



*Amelia Earhart.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Before she completed high school, Amelia also attended schools in St. Paul, Minnesota, and Springfield, Illinois. Meanwhile her father was fighting a losing battle against alcoholism. His failure and the humiliation it caused for her were the root of Amelia's lifelong dislike of alcohol and desire for financial security.

Amy Earhart left Edwin in Springfield in 1914, taking her daughters with her to live with friends in Chicago, Illinois, where Amelia graduated from the Hyde Park School in 1915. The yearbook described her as "A. E.—the girl in brown (her favorite color) who walks alone."

### ***Inspired by war***

A year later, after Amy Earhart received an inheritance from the estate of her mother, she sent Amelia to Ogontz School in Philadelphia, an exclusive high school and junior college. During Christmas vacation of her second year there, Amelia went to Toronto, Canada, where Muriel was attending a private school. In Toronto Amelia saw her first amputee (a person who had one or more limbs removed), returning wounded from World War I (1914–18; a war in which Germany and Austria fought European and American forces). She immediately refused to return to Ogontz and became a volunteer nurse in a hospital for veterans, where she worked until after the armistice (truce) of 1918. The experience made her an lifelong pacifist (person opposed to war).

From Toronto Earhart went to live with her mother and sister in Northampton, Massachusetts, where her sister was attending Smith College. In the fall of 1919 she entered Columbia University, but left after one year to join her parents, who had gotten back together and were living in Los Angeles, California.

### ***First air shows***

In the winter of 1920 Earhart saw her first air show and took her first airplane ride. "As soon as we left the ground," she said, "I knew I had to fly." She took lessons at Bert Kinner's airfield on Long Beach Boulevard in Los Angeles from a woman—Neta Snooks. On December 15, 1921, Amelia received her license from the National Aeronautics Association (NAA). By working part-time as a file clerk, office assistant, photographer, and truck driver, and with some help from her mother, Earhart eventually bought her own

plane. However, she was unable to earn enough to continue her expensive hobby.

In 1924 Earhart's parents separated again. Amelia sold her plane and bought a car in which she drove her mother to Boston, where her sister was teaching school. Soon after that Earhart reenrolled at Columbia University in New York City, but she lacked the money to continue for more than one year. She returned to Boston, where she became a social worker, joined the NAA, and continued to fly in her spare time.

### ***Crosses the Atlantic***

In 1928 Earhart accepted an offer to join the crew of a flight across the Atlantic. The flight was the scheme of George Palmer Putnam, editor of *WE*, Charles Lindbergh's (1902–1974) book about how he became the first person to fly alone across the Atlantic in 1927. Putnam chose her for his “Lady Lindy” because of her flying experience, her education, and her lady-like appearance. Along with pilot Wilmer Stultz and mechanic Louis Gordon, she crossed the Atlantic (from Newfoundland to Wales) on June 18–19, 1928. Although she never once touched the controls (she described herself afterward as little more than a “sack of potatoes”), Earhart became world-renowned as “the first woman to fly the Atlantic.”

From that time on Putnam became Earhart's manager and, in 1931, her husband. He arranged all of her flying engagements, many of which were followed by difficult cross-country lecture tours (at one point, twenty-nine lectures in thirty-one days) staged to gain maximum publicity.

Earhart became upset by reports that she was largely a puppet figure created by her

publicist husband and that she was something less than a competent aviator (pilot). To prove her skills as an aviator, she piloted a tiny, single-engine Lockheed Electra from Newfoundland, Canada, to Ireland. Then, on May 20–21, 1932, and five years after Lindbergh, Earhart became the first woman to fly solo across the Atlantic.

During the five years remaining in her life, Earhart acted as a tireless champion for commercial aviation and for women's rights. The numerous flying records she set include: an altitude record in an autogiro (an early aircraft, in 1931); the first person to fly an autogiro across the United States and back; the fastest nonstop transcontinental (continent to continent) flight by a woman (1932); breaking her own transcontinental speed record (1933); the first person to fly solo across the Pacific from Hawaii to California (1935); the first person to fly solo from Los Angeles to Mexico (1935); breaking the speed record for a nonstop flight from Los Angeles to Mexico City to Newark, New Jersey; and setting the speed record for the fastest east-west crossing from Oakland, California, to Honolulu, Hawaii (1937). She also collected numerous awards and honors from around the world.

### ***Final flight***

On July 2, 1937, twenty-two days before her fortieth birthday and having already completed 22,000 miles of an attempt to fly around the world, Earhart and her navigator, Fred Noonan, disappeared over the Pacific somewhere between Lae, New Guinea, and Howland Island (an island in the central Pacific Ocean). The largest search ever conducted by the U.S. Navy for a single missing plane sighted neither plane nor crew. Later

searches since that time have been equally unsuccessful. In 1992 an expedition found certain objects (a shoe and a metal plate) on the small atoll (island) of Nikumaroro south of Howland, which could have been left by Earhart and Noonan.

In 1997 another female pilot, Linda Finch, recreated Earhart's final flight in an around the world tribute entitled "World Flight 97." The event took place on what would have been Earhart's hundredth birthday. Finch successfully completed her voyage—the identical route that Earhart would have flown around the world.

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## GEORGE EASTMAN

**Born:** July 12, 1854

**Waterville, New York**

**Died:** March 14, 1932

**Rochester, New York**

*American inventor, industrialist, and businessman*

**B**y mass-producing his inventions, the American inventor and industrialist (one who owns or manages an industry) George Eastman promoted photography as a popular hobby. He also donated large sums to educational institutions.

### **Early years**

George Eastman was born in Waterville, New York, on July 12, 1854. His father, George W. Eastman, ran a business college in Rochester, New York; his mother, Maria Kilbourn, took care of young George and his two older sisters. His father died when he was seven, two years after the family moved to Rochester. His mother was forced to take in boarders to add to the family's small income. George was educated in Rochester public schools but dropped out at age thirteen to work and help his mother. He advanced from messenger to bookkeeper in the Rochester Savings Bank by 1877. He was always careful with money, spending it only on his hobby, amateur photography. When photographic chemicals among his cameras and supplies ruined his packed clothes on a trip to Mackinac Island, he became disgusted with the wet-plate process of producing photographs.

### **Hobby becomes a business**

In the 1870s American photography was still time-consuming, difficult, and expensive. Equipment included a huge camera, strong tripod (a three-legged stand), large plateholder, dark tent, chemicals, water container, and heavy glass plates. Eastman experimented using dry plates. He was the first American to contribute to the improvement of photographic methods by coating glass plates with gelatin, a gummy substance, and

silver bromide, a chemical. In 1879 his coating machine was patented in England, and in 1880 he received an American patent for it. He sold his English patent and opened a shop to manufacture photographic plates in Rochester. To do away with glass plates, Eastman coated paper with gelatin and photographic chemicals. The developed film was stripped from the paper to make a negative. This film was rolled on spools. Eastman and William Walker created a lightweight roll holder that would fit any camera.

Amateurs could develop pictures after Eastman substituted transparent (see-through) film for the paper in 1884. Flexible film was created by Hannibal Goodwin of New York and a young Eastman chemist, Henry Reichenback. The long patent battle between Goodwin and Eastman was the most important legal dispute in photographic history. A federal court decision in August 1913 favored Goodwin. Goodwin's family and Ansco Company, owners of his patent, received five million dollars from Eastman in 1914.

In 1888 Eastman designed a simple camera, the Kodak (a word created by Eastman; it has no meaning), which was easy to carry and made focusing and adjusting the light unnecessary. With a hundred-exposure roll of film, it sold for twenty-five dollars. After taking the pictures and sending the camera and ten dollars to the Rochester factory, the photographer received his prints and reloaded camera. Eastman's slogan, "You press the button, we do the rest," became well known.

### ***Growth and new developments***

Eastman expected that photography would soon become more popular, and in 1892 he established the Eastman Kodak



*George Eastman.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Company. This was one of the first American firms to mass-produce its goods and to maintain a chemical laboratory. By 1900 his factories at Rochester and at Harrow, England, employed over three thousand people, and by 1920 that number increased to more than fifteen thousand. Eastman, at first treasurer and general manager of the company, later became president and finally board chairman.

Daylight-loading film and cameras soon made it unnecessary to return the cameras to the factory. Eastman's old slogan changed to "You press the button, we do the rest, or you can do it yourself." A pocket Kodak was marketed in 1897, a folding Kodak in 1898, non-



curling film in 1903, and color film in 1928. Eastman film was used in Thomas Edison's (1847–1931) motion pictures; Edison's incandescent (glowing with intense heat) bulb was used by Eastman and by photographers specializing in “portraits (photographs of people) taken by electric light.”

Eastman's staff worked on other scientific problems as well as on photographic improvements. During World War I (1914–18) his laboratory helped build up America's chemical industry to the point where it no longer depended on Germany. Eventually America became the world leader.

### **Later years**

Eastman cared about his employees; he was the first American businessman to grant workers shares in the profits made by the company. He also gave away large amounts of his huge fortune to the University of Rochester (especially the medical school and Eastman School of Music), Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Hampton Institute, Tuskegee Institute, Rochester Dental Dispensary, and several European dental clinics.

George Eastman remained a bachelor all of his life. After a long illness, he committed suicide on March 14, 1932, in Rochester. He had written to friends, “My work is done. Why wait?”

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## CLINT EASTWOOD

**Born:** May 31, 1930

**San Francisco, California**

*American actor and director*

With many roles including westerns and the *Dirty Harry* series, Clint Eastwood became one of the world's most popular and successful movie stars. He also established himself as a successful director.

### **Early life**

Clinton Eastwood Jr. was born on May 31, 1930, in San Francisco, California. He was the first of Clinton and Ruth Eastwood's two children. Eastwood attended eight different grammar schools, as his parents moved frequently in search of work during the Great Depression (1929–39; a time when the U.S. economy was very weak and many people were without work). They finally settled in Oakland, California. He attended Oakland Technical High School and even appeared in a school play, an experience he did not enjoy. Eastwood swam competitively in high school and also played on the basketball team. After graduating in 1948, he held various low-paying jobs before being drafted into the army. He was discharged in 1953. Then he enrolled in Los Angeles City College as a business major, supporting himself with various odd jobs, including digging swimming pool foundations.

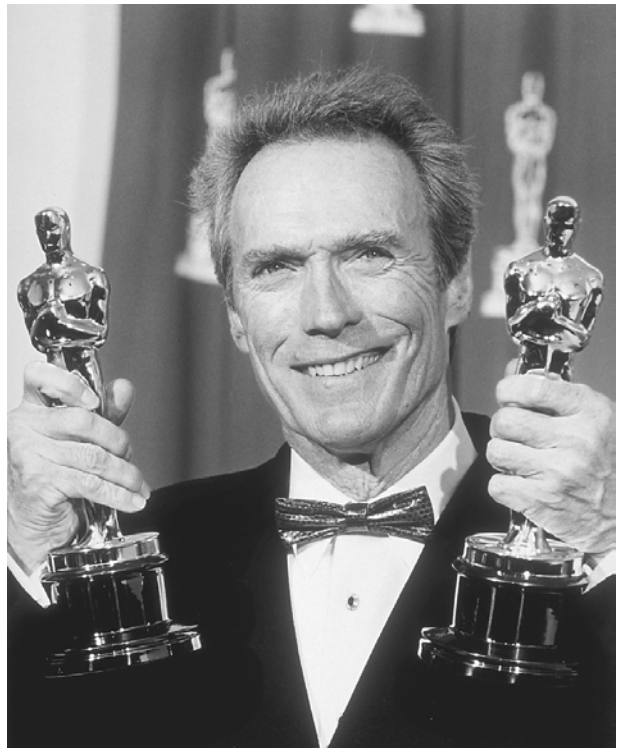
### Early acting career

Army friends in the film business urged Eastwood to take a screen test at Universal Studios. His good looks landed him a job as a contract player in 1955. He earned seventy-five dollars a week playing small parts in bad movies. Universal dropped him in 1956, and by 1958 Eastwood was again digging swimming pools for a living. As the result of a chance meeting, he was chosen for the cast of the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) television series *Rawhide*, which lasted seven years (1959–66).

During a break from *Rawhide* in 1964, Eastwood filmed the western *A Fistful of Dollars* in Spain with Italian director Sergio Leone. The film made Eastwood an overnight star. He returned to Europe to film two more westerns, *For a Few Dollars More* (1965) and *The Good, The Bad, and The Ugly* (1966). Eastwood's character in these films was cold and tough, as were characters in his later westerns, such as *The Outlaw Josey Wales* (1976) and *Unforgiven* (1992). Another tough character he created was Harry Callahan, a detective who ignores police regulations and practices his own brand of justice. Callahan was introduced in *Dirty Harry* (1971), which viewers loved. Eastwood made four later films with the Callahan character.

### Begins directing

Eastwood's first attempt at directing a film was successful with *Play Misty for Me* (1971), a thriller. It received good reviews and did well at the box office, as did many of the films he directed after it. He starred in most of them, but not in one of his finest efforts, *Bird* (1988), which dealt with the life of the jazz musician Charlie Parker



Clint Eastwood.

Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.

(1920–1955). Jazz music has appeared frequently on the soundtracks of many of Eastwood's films.

In the early 1980s Eastwood began to receive more recognition for his contributions as producer and director, especially in his smaller films. In 1985 he flew to Paris, France, to accept the honor of Chevalier des Arts et Lettres, a national award. In 1992 Eastwood won his first Academy Award for *Unforgiven*. Three years later the Academy honored him with the Irving G. Thalberg Memorial Award, which is given to producers or directors with a body of high-quality motion picture work. Eastwood continues to

act and direct, his later films including *The Bridges of Madison County* (1995), *Absolute Power* (1997), and *Space Cowboys* (2000).

### ***Private and political life***

Eastwood lives in Carmel, California. Most of his friends are not involved in show business. He has been approached many times to run for political office but has refused, except for serving a two-year term (1986–88) as mayor of Carmel. Eastwood decided to run because he disapproved of zoning laws in the city. After changing the laws, he stepped down. Eastwood had two children with his first wife Maggie Johnson, whom he married in 1953. They divorced in 1984 after a long separation, with Johnson receiving a reported \$25 million settlement. Eastwood also lived for over ten years with actress Sandra Locke, who appeared in many of his films. The end of that relationship resulted in a lawsuit that required Eastwood to pay Locke more than \$7 million. In 1996 Eastwood married Dina Ruiz, a television reporter.

In 2000 a jury ruled that Eastwood did not have to pay damages to a disabled woman who claimed his Mission Ranch Inn did not comply with the Americans with Disabilities Act. However, Eastwood was ordered to improve handicapped access to the hotel office at his property near Carmel. Later that year Eastwood was given a Kennedy Center Honor by U.S. president Bill Clinton (1946–) and praised as a man who continues to take risks in his work. In 2001 Eastwood received the San Francisco International Film Festival's Akira Kurosawa Award for directing. Later that year, noting Eastwood's concern for the environment, the governor of California

appointed him to the state's Park and Recreation Commission.

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## THOMAS EDISON

**Born:** February 11, 1847

**Milan, Ohio**

**Died:** October 18, 1931

**West Orange, New Jersey**

*American inventor*

The American inventor Thomas Edison held hundreds of patents, mostly for electrical devices and electric light and power. Although the phonograph and the electric light bulb are best known, perhaps his greatest invention was organized research.

### ***Early life***

Thomas Alva Edison was born in Milan, Ohio, on February 11, 1847, the youngest of Samuel and Nancy Eliot Edison's seven chil-

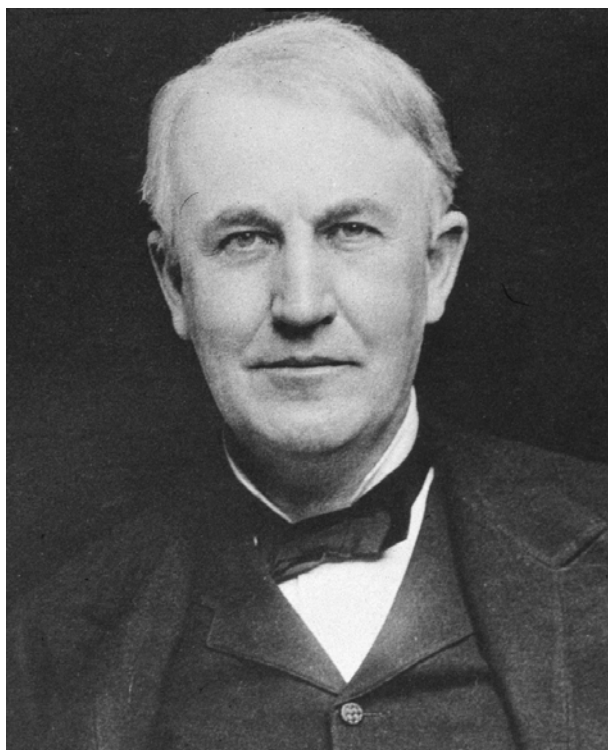
dren. His father worked at different jobs, including as a shopkeeper and shingle maker; his mother was a former teacher. Edison spent short periods of time in school but was mainly tutored by his mother. He also read books from his father's extensive library.

At the age of twelve Edison sold fruit, candy, and newspapers on the Grand Trunk Railroad between Port Huron and Detroit, Michigan. In 1862, using a small printing press in a baggage car, he wrote and printed the *Grand Trunk Herald*, which was circulated to four hundred railroad employees. That year he became a telegraph operator, taught by the father of a child whose life Edison had saved. Excused from military service because of deafness, he worked at different places before joining Western Union Telegraph Company in Boston in 1868. He also continued to read, becoming especially fond of the writings of British scientist Michael Faraday (1791–1867) on the subject of electricity.

### **First inventions**

Edison's first invention was probably an automatic telegraph repeater (1864), which enabled telegraph signals to travel greater distances. His first patent was for an electric vote counter. In 1869, as a partner in a New York electrical firm, he perfected a machine for telegraphing stock market quotations and sold it. This money, in addition to that from his share of the partnership, provided funds for his own factory in Newark, New Jersey. Edison hired as many as eighty workers, including chemists and mathematicians, to help him with inventions; he wanted an "invention factory."

From 1870 to 1875 Edison invented many telegraphic improvements, including



*Thomas Edison.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

transmitters, receivers, and automatic printers and tape. He worked with Christopher Sholes, "father of the typewriter," in 1871 to improve the typing machine. Edison claimed he made twelve typewriters at Newark about 1870. The Remington Company bought his interests. In 1876 Edison's carbon telegraph transmitter for Western Union marked a real advance toward making the Bell telephone successful. With the money Edison received from Western Union for his transmitter, he established a factory in Menlo Park, New Jersey. Within six years he had more than three hundred patents. The electric pen (1877) produced stencils to make copies. The A. B.

Dick Company licensed Edison's patent and manufactured the first copy machine.

Edison's most original and successful invention, the phonograph, was patented in 1877. From an instrument operated by hand that made impressions on metal foil and replayed sounds, it became a motor-driven machine playing soda can-shaped wax records by 1887. By 1890 he had more than eighty patents on it. The Victor Company developed from his patents. Edison's later dictating machine, the Ediphone, used disks.

### *Electric light*

To research incandescent light (glowing with intense heat without burning), Edison and others organized the Edison Electric Light Company in 1878. (It later became the General Electric Company.) Edison made the first practical electric light bulb in 1879, and it was patented the following year. Edison and his staff examined six thousand organic fibers from around the world, searching for a material that would glow, but not burn, when electric current passed through it. He found that Japanese bamboo was best. Mass production soon made the lamps, while low-priced, profitable.

Prior to Edison's central power station, each user of electricity needed a generator, which was inconvenient and expensive. Edison opened the first commercial electric station in London in 1882. In September the Pearl Street Station in New York City marked the beginning of America's electrical age. Within four months the station was providing power to light more than five thousand lamps, and the demand for lamps exceeded supply. By 1890 it supplied current to twenty thousand lamps, mainly in office buildings,

and to motors, fans, printing presses, and heating appliances. Many towns and cities installed central stations based on this model. Increased use of electricity led to numerous improvements in the system.

In 1883 Edison made a significant discovery in pure science, the Edison effect—electrons (particles of an atom with a negative electrical charge) flowed from incandescent conducting threads. With a metal plate inserted next to the thread, the lamp could serve as a valve, admitting only negative electricity. Although “etheric force” had been recognized in 1875 and the Edison effect was patented in 1883, the discovery was little known outside the Edison laboratory. (At this time existence of electrons was not generally accepted.) This “force” underlies radio broadcasting, long-distance telephone systems, sound pictures, television, X rays, high-frequency surgery, and electronic musical instruments. In 1885 Edison patented a method to transmit telegraphic “aerial” signals, which worked over short distances. He later sold this “wireless” patent to Guglielmo Marconi (1874–1937).

### *Creating the modern research laboratory*

In 1887 Edison moved his operations to West Orange, New Jersey. This factory, which Edison directed from 1887 to 1931, was the world's most complete research laboratory, with teams of workers investigating problems. Various inventions included a method to make plate glass, a magnetic ore separator, a cement process, an all-concrete house, an electric locomotive (patented in 1893), a nickel-iron battery, and motion pictures. Edison also developed the fluoroscope (an instrument used to study the inside of the liv-

ing body by X rays), but he refused to patent it, which allowed doctors to use it freely. The Edison battery was perfected in 1910. After eight thousand trials Edison remarked, "Well, at least we know eight thousand things that don't work."

Edison's motion picture camera, the kinetograph, could photograph action on fifty-foot strips of film, sixteen images per foot. In 1893 a young assistant, in order to make the first Edison movies, built a small laboratory called the "Black Maria"—a shed, painted black inside and out, that revolved on a base to follow the sun and keep the actors visible. The kinetoscope projector of 1893 showed the films. The first commercial movie theater, a peepshow, opened in New York in 1884. A coin put into a slot activated the kinetoscope inside the box. In 1895 Edison acquired and improved Thomas Armat's projector, marketing it as the Vitascope. The Edison Company produced over seventeen hundred movies. Combining movies with the phonograph in 1904, Edison laid the basis for talking pictures. In 1908 his cinemaphone appeared, adjusting film speed to phonograph speed. In 1913 his kinetophone projected talking pictures: the phonograph, behind the screen, ran in time with the projector through a series of ropes and pulleys. Edison produced several "talkies."

### ***Work for the government***

During World War I (1914–18) Edison headed the U.S. Navy Consulting Board and contributed forty-five inventions, including substitutes for previously imported chemicals, defensive instruments against U-boats, a ship telephone system, an underwater searchlight, smoke screen machines, antitorpedo nets,

navigating equipment, and methods of aiming and firing naval guns. After the war he established the Naval Research Laboratory, the only American organized weapons research institution until World War II (1939–45).

### ***Synthetic rubber***

With Henry Ford (1863–1947) and the Firestone Company, Edison organized the Edison Botanic Research Company in 1927 to discover or develop a domestic source of rubber. Some seventeen thousand different plant specimens were examined over four years—an indication of how thorough Edison's research was. He eventually was able to develop a strain yielding twelve percent latex, and in 1930 he received his last patent for this process.

### ***The man himself***

To help raise money, Edison called attention to himself by dressing carelessly, clowning for reporters, and making statements such as "Genius is one percent inspiration and ninety-nine percent perspiration," and "Discovery is not invention." He scoffed at formal education, thought four hours of sleep a night was enough, and often worked forty or fifty hours straight, sleeping on a laboratory floor. As a world symbol of American inventiveness, he looked and acted the part. Edison had thousands of books at home and masses of printed materials at the laboratory. When launching a new project, he wished to avoid others' mistakes and tried to learn everything about a subject. Some twenty-five thousand notebooks contained his research records, ideas, hunches, and mistakes.

Edison died in West Orange on October 18, 1931. The laboratory buildings and

equipment associated with his career are preserved in Greenfield Village, Detroit, Michigan, thanks to Henry Ford's interest and friendship.

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## ALBERT EINSTEIN

**Born:** March 14, 1879

Ulm, Germany

**Died:** April 18, 1955

Princeton, Massachusetts

*German-born American physicist and scientist*

**T**he German-born American physicist (one who studies matter and energy and the relationships between them) Albert Einstein revolutionized the science of physics. He is best known for his theory of relativity, which holds that measurements of space and time vary according to conditions such as the state of motion of the observer.

### **Early years and education**

Albert Einstein was born on March 14, 1879, in Ulm, Germany, but he grew up and obtained his early education in Munich, Germany. He was a poor student, and some of his teachers thought he might be retarded (mentally handicapped); he was unable to speak fluently (with ease and grace) at age nine. Still, he was fascinated by the laws of nature, experiencing a deep feeling of wonder when puzzling over the invisible, yet real, force directing the needle of a compass. He began playing the violin at age six and would continue to play throughout his life. At age twelve he discovered geometry (the study of points, lines, and surfaces) and was taken by its clear and certain proofs. Einstein mastered calculus (a form of higher mathematics used to solve problems in physics and engineering) by age sixteen.

Einstein's formal secondary education ended at age sixteen. He disliked school, and just as he was planning to find a way to leave without hurting his chances for entering the university, his teacher expelled him because his bad attitude was affecting his classmates. Einstein tried to enter the Federal Institute of Technology (FIT) in Zurich, Switzerland, but his knowledge of subjects other than mathematics was not up to par, and he failed the entrance examination. On the advice of the principal, he first obtained his diploma at the Cantonal School in Aarau, Switzerland, and in 1896 he was automatically admitted into the FIT. There he came to realize that he was more interested in and better suited for physics than mathematics.

Einstein passed his examination to graduate from the FIT in 1900, but due to the opposition of one of his professors he was

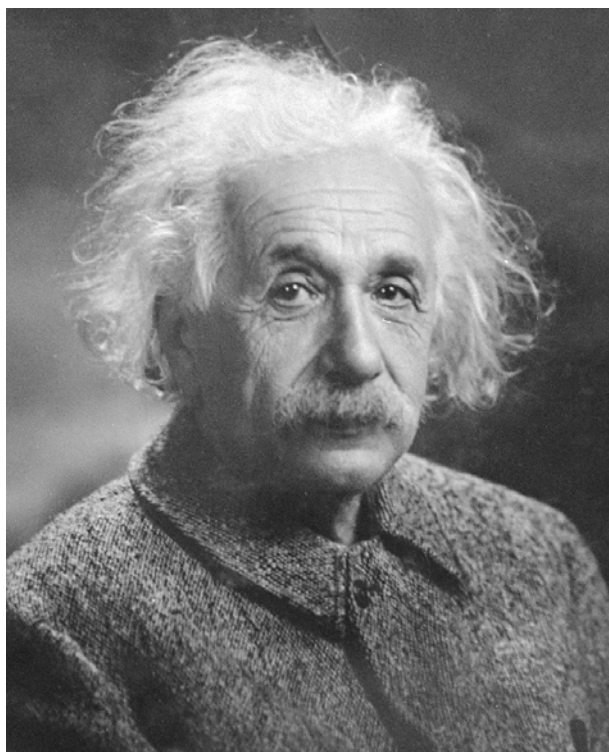
unable to go on to obtain the usual university assistantship. In 1902 he was hired as an inspector in the patent office in Bern, Switzerland. Six months later he married Mileva Maric, a former classmate in Zurich. They had two sons. It was in Bern, too, that Einstein, at twenty-six, completed the requirements for his doctoral degree and wrote the first of his revolutionary scientific papers.

### *Famous papers*

Thermodynamics (the study of heat processes) made the deepest impression on Einstein. From 1902 until 1904 he reworked the foundations of thermodynamics and statistical mechanics (the study of forces and their effect on matter); this work formed the immediate background to his revolutionary papers of 1905, one of which was on Brownian motion.

In Brownian motion, first observed in 1827 by the Scottish botanist (scientist who studies plants) Robert Brown (1773–1858), small particles suspended in a liquid such as water undergo a rapid, irregular motion. Einstein, unaware of Brown's earlier observations, concluded from his studies that such a motion must exist. He was guided by the thought that if the liquid in which the particles are suspended is made up of atoms, they should collide with the particles and set them into motion. He found that the motion of the particles will in time experience a forward movement. Einstein proved that this forward movement is directly related to the number of atoms per gram of atomic weight. Brownian motion is to this day considered one of the most direct proofs of the existence of atoms.

Another of Einstein's ideas in 1905 was that under certain conditions radiant energy



*Albert Einstein.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

(light) behaves as if it is made up not of waves but of particles of energy. He presented an equation for the photoelectric effect, in which electrons (particles in the outer portion of an atom that are said to have a “negative” electrical charge equal to that of protons, particles with a larger mass that are said to have a “positive” electrical charge) are ejected from a metal surface that has been exposed to light. Einstein proved that the electrons are not ejected in a constant stream but like bullets from a gun, in units, or “quanta.” Although Einstein's famous equation for the photoelectric effect—for which he won the Nobel Prize in physics in 1921—appears obvious today, it



was an extremely bold prediction in 1905. Not until years later did R. A. Millikan finally succeed in confirming it to everyone's everyone's satisfaction.

The theory of relativity came from Einstein's search for a general law of nature that would explain a problem that had occurred to him when he was sixteen: if one runs at, say, 4 4 miles per hour (6.4 kilometers per hour) alongside a train that is moving at 4 4 miles per hour, the train appears to be at rest; if, on the other hand, it were possible to run alongside a ray of light, neither experiment nor theory suggests that the ray of light would appear to be at rest. Einstein realized that no matter what speed the observer is moving at, he must always observe the same velocity of light, which is roughly 186,000 miles per second (299,274 kilometers per second). He also saw that this was in agreement with a second assumption: if an observer at rest and an observer moving at constant speed carry out the same kind of experiment, they must get the same result. These two assumptions make up Einstein's special theory of relativity. Also in 1905 Einstein proved that his theory predicted that energy (E) and mass (m) are entirely related according to his famous equation,  $E=mc^2$ . This means that the energy in any particle is equal to the particle's mass multiplied by the speed of light squared.

### *Academic career*

These papers made Einstein famous, and universities soon began competing for his services. In 1909, after serving as a lecturer at the University of Bern, Einstein was called as an associate professor to the University of Zurich. Two years later he was appointed a

full professor at the German University in Prague, Czechoslovakia. Within another year-and-a-half Einstein became a full professor at the FIT. Finally, in 1913 the well-known scientists Max Planck (1858–1947) and Walther Nernst (1864–1941) traveled to Zurich to persuade Einstein to accept a lucrative (profitable) research professorship at the University of Berlin in Germany, as well as full membership in the Prussian Academy of Science. He accepted their offer in 1914, saying, "The Germans are gambling on me as they would on a prize hen. I do not really know myself whether I shall ever really lay another egg." When he went to Berlin, his wife remained behind in Zurich with their two sons; they divorced, and Einstein married his cousin Elsa in 1917.

In 1920 Einstein was appointed to a life-long honorary visiting professorship at the University of Leiden in Holland. In 1921 and 1922 Einstein, accompanied by Chaim Weizmann (1874–1952), the future president of the state of Israel, traveled all over the world to win support for the cause of Zionism (the establishing of an independent Jewish state). In Germany, where hatred of Jewish people was growing, the attacks on Einstein began. Philipp Lenard and Johannes Stark, both Nobel Prize-winning physicists, began referring to Einstein's theory of relativity as "Jewish physics." These kinds of attacks increased until Einstein resigned from the Prussian Academy of Science in 1933.

### *Career in America*

On several occasions Einstein had visited the California Institute of Technology, and on his last trip to the United States he was offered a position in the newly established Institute for

Advanced Studies in Princeton, Massachusetts. He went there in 1933.

Einstein played a key role (1939) in the construction of the atomic bomb by signing a famous letter to President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945). It said that the Germans had made scientific advances and that it was possible that Adolf Hitler (1889–1945, the German leader whose actions led to World War II [1939–45]), might become the first to have atomic weapons. This led to an all-out U.S. effort to construct such a bomb. Einstein was deeply shocked and saddened when his famous equation  $E=mc^2$  was finally demonstrated in the most awesome and terrifying way by using the bomb to destroy Hiroshima, Japan, in 1945. For a long time he could only utter “Horrible, horrible.”

It would be difficult to find a more suitable epitaph (a brief statement summing up a person's life) than the words Einstein himself used in describing his life: “God . . . gave me the stubbornness of a mule and nothing else; really . . . He also gave me a keen scent.” On April 18, 1955, Einstein died in Princeton.

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## DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

**Born:** October 14, 1890

**Denison, Texas**

**Died:** March 26, 1969

**Washington, D.C.**

*American president, university president, and army officer*

Dwight D. Eisenhower was leader of the Allied forces in Europe during World War II (1939–45), commander of NATO, and thirty-fourth president of the United States (1953–61).

### **Early life**

Dwight D. Eisenhower was born in Denison, Texas, on October 14, 1890, the third of seven sons. Soon after his birth, the family moved to Abilene, Kansas. His family was poor, and Eisenhower early learned the value of hard work, earning money selling vegetables and working for a creamery, a place where milk products like butter and cheese are made or sold.

Although Eisenhower was an average student, he enjoyed studying history. His heroes included military figures like George Washington (1732–1799) and Hannibal (247–183 B.C.E.). He excelled in athletics, particularly football. Eisenhower graduated from Abilene High School in 1909 and then

went to work for a year to help pay for his brother's college education. In 1911 he attended West Point Military Academy, where he was more interested in sports, especially football, than in his studies. Eisenhower graduated from West Point in 1915 and married Mamie Doud (1896–1979) the next year.

### *Army career and command in Europe*

Eisenhower's army career was marked by a slow rise to greatness. He graduated first in his class in 1926 from the army's Command and General Staff School. Following graduation, he served under General Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964), becoming MacArthur's aide in the Philippines. Returning to the United States in 1939, Eisenhower became chief of staff of the Third Army. In 1941 he attracted attention with his brilliance in commanding the training of 420,000 American soldiers in Louisiana.

When the United States joined World War II (1939–45) in 1941, Eisenhower became chief of the War Plans Division of the U.S. Army General Staff. He helped with preparations for the war in Europe. In May 1942 he was made supreme commander of the Allied Forces in Europe and traveled to London in June of the same year. (In World War II, the Allied forces—France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, China, and the United States—fought against the Axis forces—Germany, Italy, and Japan.)

Eisenhower's personal qualities were precisely right for his new position. He successfully dealt with British generals and with the strong prime minister of Great Britain, Winston Churchill (1874–1965). Eisenhower's post called for an ability to get along

with people and yet maintain his own position as leader of the Allied forces. In addition to his ability to gain respect, Eisenhower also showed skill in choosing qualified people to serve under him.

In June 1942 Eisenhower was made the leader of the November 1942 invasion of North Africa. The plan for the invasion of North Africa was to trap the Axis troops led by Erwin Rommel (1891–1944) between British and U.S. forces. By May 1943 the North African operation had succeeded and the Allies had taken control of Africa. Despite British reluctance, Eisenhower began preparing for the June 1944 invasion of Europe at Normandy, France. After the Allies successfully landed in Normandy, Eisenhower led the forces forward triumphantly to defeat the German armies. By spring 1945 the war in Europe was over. Eisenhower became one of the best-known men in the United States and some saw a career in politics in his future.

### *From Columbia University to the presidency*

Eisenhower denied any desire to enter politics and in 1948 left the military to become president of Columbia University. In 1950 he accepted an offer made by President Harry Truman (1884–1972) to become the first commander of the newly formed North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO; an organization formed by many European countries and the United States, who all signed a treaty in 1949 agreeing to defend Western Europe against a possible attack by the Soviet Union). As the commander of NATO, Eisenhower's ability to deal with men of strong and differing opinions was valuable.

Although Eisenhower had not previously claimed any interest in politics, he remained popular with the American public. He became the Republican candidate in the 1952 presidential election and won by a tremendous margin. Throughout 1955 and 1956 he suffered health problems but was able to accept his party's renomination and easily won the 1956 election.

Eisenhower's strength as president was largely based upon his strong character. For most of his presidency, he was compelled to rely upon both Democrats and Republicans. As a leader, Eisenhower shared power with others and often took positions in the center. He was influenced by his secretary of the treasury, George Humphrey (1890–1970), and by his secretary of state, John Foster Dulles (1888–1959).

To classify Eisenhower as liberal (in favor of individual rights) or conservative (in favor of preserving tradition and gradual change) is difficult. He was sympathetic to business and was not in favor of enlarging the role of government in economic affairs. Yet he favored some liberal ideas, such as social security, minimum wage, and the establishment of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

### ***Civil rights for African Americans***

The most significant development in domestic policy during Eisenhower's years as president came through the Supreme Court. First in 1953, the president appointed Earl Warren (1891–1974) to the post of chief justice. In 1954 the Warren Court declared segregation (separation according to race) in the schools unconstitutional, giving new support to the civil rights movement.



*Dwight D. Eisenhower.*  
*Reproduced by permission of the*  
*Dwight D. Eisenhower Library.*

Eisenhower was extremely cautious in carrying out the Supreme Court's decision. Nonetheless, he was forced to take action in 1957 when Arkansas governor Orval Faubus (1910–1994) acted against the court's decision by using national guardsmen to prevent African Americans from entering schools in Little Rock, Arkansas. After various efforts to enforce the law, the president sent federal troops to Little Rock. During his second term, Eisenhower signed laws to enforce desegregation (the process of ending separation according to race), and in 1960 he made resistance to desegregation a federal offense.

**Foreign policies**

Eisenhower encouraged the strengthening of NATO while also seeking to improve relations with the Soviet Union. During the years since World War II, France, Great Britain, the U.S.S.R., and the United States made little progress on the problem of a divided Germany. (After World War II, Germany had been divided into four different areas, each of which was controlled by a separate country—France, Great Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union. The area occupied by the Soviet Union eventually became Communist East Germany, and the other three areas joined to form West Germany under a democratic government.) A new effort to work out the situation began in 1959, and an international conference was planned. The conference was cancelled when Soviets captured an American spy plane over the Soviet Union.

In Asia Eisenhower worked out a truce with the North Koreans to end the Korean War (1950–53; a war fought between South Korea, supported by the United Nations and the United States, and North Korea). The president's secretary of state negotiated the treaty that created the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO). The United States pledged to consult with the members of SEATO and to help meet any threat to peace in Southeast Asia. This treaty was especially significant to Vietnam, which in 1954 was divided into North Vietnam and South Vietnam. North Vietnam came under Communist control, while the anti-Communist South was increasingly supported by the United States.

Meanwhile in Latin America, Cuba was ruled by an increasingly brutal and domineer-

ing president, Fulgencio Batista (1901–1973). In 1958, the American government withdrew military support from the Batista regime. A collapse of the government followed, and the Cuban leftist leader, Fidel Castro (1926–), took control of the government. Castro began to develop close ties with the Soviet Union, and relations between Cuba and the United States ended in January 1960.

Eisenhower's death in Washington, D.C., on March 26, 1969, was an occasion for national mourning and for worldwide recognition of his important role in the events of his time. Few presidents have enjoyed greater popularity than Eisenhower. He was widely admired for his strong character and his modesty.

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## MAMIE EISENHOWER

**Born:** November 14, 1896

**Boone, Iowa**

**Died:** November 1, 1979

**Washington, D.C.**

*American first lady*

Mamie Eisenhower, the wife of President Dwight D. “Ike” Eisenhower (1890–1969), represented what was to 1950s America the ideal American wife: She displayed quiet strength, found satisfaction in domestic duties, and supported her husband without hesitation. She also devoted time to various charities and helped preserve the history of the White House.

### *Early life*

Mamie Geneva Doud was born in Boone, Iowa, on November 14, 1896. She was the second of four daughters born to John Sheldon Doud, a self-employed meat packer, and Elivera Mathilda Carlson Doud. Mamie was a happy, friendly, and charming girl. While she enjoyed school, she enjoyed after-school activities and social events even more. The Douds were a wealthy family and gave many parties and had visits from friends. Still, her father made sure that she learned practical lessons such as how to manage money, run a household, and shop for bargains.

When Mamie’s older sister Eleanor developed a heart condition, doctors suggested that spending the winter in a warmer place might help her recover. Mamie’s father

bought a winter home in San Antonio, Texas. In 1915, while in San Antonio with her family, Mamie met Dwight D. “Ike” Eisenhower, a young army officer and high school football coach. They were immediately attracted to each other and were married the next year.

For Mamie Eisenhower, being a military wife was hard at first. She was used to life with the close and well-respected Doud family; being Mrs. Eisenhower meant less money and a smaller circle of friends. Over the next several decades she loyally followed her husband from assignment to assignment when she could and raised their family herself when she could not. Ike’s pay was very low at first, and Mamie’s father’s advice on money matters came in handy during these times. Over the years, Ike became increasingly recognized as a military leader.

### *New pressures*

At the end of World War II (1939–45) Dwight was a national hero, and for Mamie this meant an adjustment to dealing with newfound fame as well as the opportunity to meet important world leaders. Dwight became president of Columbia University in 1948. Throughout her husband’s years at Columbia, Mamie was a gracious hostess to many famous visitors.

When her husband decided to enter the presidential race in 1952, Mamie—a self-described homebody—realized that she would have to get used to being in the public eye. “There would be nothing he would ask during the campaign that I would not do,” she recalled. As a campaign wife she agreed to daily appearances and interviews and answered thousands of letters.



Mamie Eisenhower.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

### *Life in the White House*

After Dwight won the presidency and took office in 1953, Mamie spent a great deal of her time on domestic matters in the White House. By this time she was used to overseeing a staff, and it was her job to see that the executive mansion was run efficiently. She also supported charitable causes and showed her respect for the history of the White House by leading a drive to find and recover genuine presidential antiques. She and her husband agreed to a division of labor during his two terms ("Ike took care of the office—I ran the house").

### *Public ideal*

Mamie was the first lady of the United States at a time when home and family were considered the most important things in life. Dwight observed of his wife: "I personally think that Mamie's biggest contribution was to make the White House livable, comfortable, and meaningful for the people who came in. She was always helpful and ready to do anything. . . . She saw that as one of her functions and performed it, no matter how tired she was."

Dwight left office in 1961. Although he remained interested and willing to offer his opinions on national matters until his death in 1969, he and Mamie were at last able to enjoy something like a peaceful retirement. Mamie lived quietly after her husband's death until she passed away on November 1, 1979, in Washington, D.C.

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**JOYCELYN  
ELDERS**

**Born: August 13, 1933**  
**Schaal, Arkansas**

*African American federal government official  
and surgeon general*

Confirmed as the sixteenth surgeon general of the United States on September 7, 1993, Joycelyn Elders is the first African American and the second female to head the U.S. Public Health Service. During her fifteen months as surgeon general, Elders added tobacco use, national health care, and drug and alcohol abuse to her list of major concerns.

### ***Childhood and education***

Jocelyn Elders was born Minnie Jones on August 13, 1933, in the farming community of Schaal, Arkansas. She took the name Jocelyn in college. Living in a poor, segregated (separated based on race) area, she and her seven siblings worked in the cotton fields and attended an all-black school thirteen miles from home. Home itself was a three-room cabin that lacked an indoor toilet and electricity.

One of Elders's earliest memories was of being taught to read by her mother, who had an eighth grade education, which was quite remarkable for an African American woman at that time. By the time Elders neared graduation from high school, she had earned a scholarship to the all-black Philander Smith College in Little Rock, Arkansas. Initially college looked doubtful for Elders because her father did not want to let her go. However, her grandmother persuaded Elders's father to let her attend. Elders's family picked extra cotton to earn the \$3.43 for her bus fare to Little Rock, and she became the first in her family to attend college.

### ***Becoming a doctor***

At school, Elders was especially interested in the study of biology and chemistry and wanted to become a lab technician. Her goal changed when she heard a speech by Edith Irby Jones (1927–), the first African American to study at the University of Arkansas School of Medicine. Elders, who had not even met a doctor until she was sixteen, realized that she wanted to be a physician. After graduating from college, she joined the U.S. Army's Women's Medical Specialist Corps. In 1956 she entered the Arkansas Medical School on the G.I. Bill, which provided financial aid for schooling to former members of the armed forces. During this time she met her second husband, Oliver Elders, and they married in 1960.

After studying pediatrics (an area of medicine involving the care of children) at the University of Minnesota, Elders returned to Little Rock in 1961 for her residency, or medical training period. Over the next twenty years, she combined a successful office practice with research in pediatric endocrinology, the study of glands. She became an expert in growth problems and juvenile diabetes (a disorder that causes the body to have difficulty maintaining a healthy blood sugar level).

It was this branch of science that led her to study sexual behavior. Recognizing that diabetic females face a health risk if they become pregnant too young, Elders saw the urgent need to talk about the dangers of pregnancy with her patients and to distribute contraceptives (items used to prevent pregnancy) in order to limit those dangers. The results of her actions were clear. Of the 520 juvenile diabetics Elders treated, approxi-





Joycelyn Elders.

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mately half were female, and only one became pregnant.

### ***Combating teen pregnancy***

In 1986, the year before then-governor Bill Clinton (1946–) named Elders director of the Arkansas Department of Health, twenty percent of Arkansas's total births were to teenage mothers. By comparison, the national teenage birth rate was thirteen percent. Arkansas taxpayers paid huge amounts for the care of young Arkansas parents and their children. Elders was equally concerned with the large number of emotionally immature young adults who were

becoming parents to unwanted children. She saw an urgent need for bolder government involvement and an intense public education campaign.

Elders glimpsed one of the approaches she would later support when she visited Arkansas's first school-based health clinic in Lincoln, where contraceptives were given to students on request and where senior-class pregnancies had fallen from thirteen to one. Under Elders, eighteen other school clinics opened, though only four of them distributed condoms (a specific type of contraceptive). As Elders campaigned for the clinics and expanded sex education throughout Arkansas, she battled with political conservatives who criticized her effort to increase the government's role in citizens' lives. She was also opposed by members of some religious groups who feared that the distribution of condoms would increase sexual activity and promote abortion (a woman's right to end a pregnancy).

Elders fought back by saying that she would gladly teach abstinence (the practice of not having sex) if she felt that such an approach would work. But in the real world, she argued, teens would continue to have sex, and it was the job of adults and of government to turn an irresponsible action into a responsible one. Such arguments proved convincing. In 1989 the Arkansas State Legislature ordered the creation of a kindergarten-through-twelfth-grade curriculum (courses that the students would study) including not only sex education but also instruction in hygiene (cleanliness that is important for health), substance-abuse prevention, self-esteem, and equal sexual responsibility among both males and females.

***The surgeon general***

President Clinton's nomination of Elders for the post of U.S. surgeon general made her the second African American and fifth woman to be chosen for a cabinet position. However, some people were strongly against the president's choice. Elders was criticized for favoring abortion on demand (abortion without restriction). Her critics also did not agree with her support for medicinal use of marijuana, U.S. legalization of the RU-486 pill (which may be taken by a woman to end a pregnancy), and her urging television networks to air condom ads. She was also involved in a scandal regarding the National Bank of Arkansas, for which she had served on the board of directors. Nevertheless, Elders gained the backing of the American Medical Association and former U.S. surgeon general C. Everett Koop (1916–). In September 1993 the Senate approved her nomination by a sixty-five to thirty-four vote.

As U.S. surgeon general, Elders continued her work regarding teen pregnancy. She was also concerned with tobacco use, national health care, acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease of the immune system), gun control, and drug and alcohol abuse. However, Elders was forced to resign in December 1994 after she was surrounded by controversy over a statement she made at World AIDS Day at the United Nations. Asked if she would consider promoting masturbation (pleasuring oneself sexually without engaging in sexual intercourse) as a means of preventing young people from engaging in riskier forms of sexual activity, Elders had responded, as quoted in *US News & World Report*, that "masturbation . . . is something that is a part of human sexuality

and a part of something that should perhaps be taught." Elders's statement enraged both conservatives and moderates, and she was asked by the Clinton administration to give up her position as surgeon general.

In January 1995 Elders returned to the University of Arkansas as a faculty researcher and a professor of pediatric endocrinology at Arkansas Children's Hospital. She continues to promote discussion of health-care issues as a public speaker and through such projects as assisting in the development of SexHealth.com, a website on sexual health.

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## GEORGE ELIOT

**Born:** November 22, 1819

**Warwickshire, England**

**Died:** December 22, 1880

**London, England**

*English author and novelist*

**G**eorge Eliot was the pen name (a writing name) used by the English novelist Mary Ann Evans, one of the most important writers of European fiction. Her masterpiece, *Middlemarch*, is not

only a major social record but also one of the greatest novels in the history of fiction.

### ***Mary Ann's youth and early career***

Mary Ann Evans was born November 22, 1819, in Warwickshire, England, to Robert Evans, an estate agent, or manager, and Christiana Pearson. She lived in a comfortable home, the youngest of three children. When she was five years old, she and her sister were sent to boarding school at Attleborough, Warwickshire, and when she was nine she was transferred to a boarding school at Nuneaton. It was during these years that Mary discovered her passion for reading. At thirteen years of age, Mary went to school at Coventry. Her education was conservative (one that held with the traditions of the day), dominated by Christian teachings.

Mary Ann completed her schooling when she was sixteen years old. In her twenties she came into contact with a circle of people whose thinking did not coincide with the opinions of most people and underwent an extreme change of her beliefs. Influenced by the so-called Higher Criticism—a largely German school that studied the Bible and that attempted to treat sacred writings as human and historical documents—she devoted herself to translating these works from the German language to English for the English public. She published her translation of David Strauss's *Life of Jesus* in 1846 and her translation of Ludwig Andreas Feuerbach's *Essence of Christianity* in 1854.

In 1851 Evans became an editor of the *Westminster Review*, a sensible and open-minded journal. Here, she came into contact with a group known as the positivists. They were followers of the doctrines of the French

philosopher (a seeker of knowledge) Auguste Comte (1798–1857), who were interested in applying scientific knowledge to the problems of society. One of these men was George Henry Lewes (1817–1878), a brilliant philosopher, psychologist (one who is educated in the science of the mind), and literary critic, with whom she formed a lasting relationship. As he was separated from his wife but unable to obtain a divorce, their relationship was a scandal in those times. Nevertheless, the obvious devotion and long length of their union came to be respected.

### ***Becomes George Eliot***

In the same period Evans turned her powerful mind from scholarly and critical writing to creative work. In 1857 she published a short story, "Amos Barton," and took the pen name "George Eliot" in order to prevent the discrimination (unfair treatment because of gender or race) that women of her era faced. After collecting her short stories in *Scenes of Clerical Life* (2 vols., 1858), Eliot published her first novel, *Adam Bede* (1859). The plot was drawn from a memory of Eliot's aunt, a Methodist preacher, whom she used as a model for a character in the novel.

Eliot's next novel, *The Mill on the Floss* (1860), shows even stronger traces of her childhood and youth in small-town and rural England. The final pages of the novel show the heroine reaching toward a "religion of humanity" (the belief in human beings and their individual moral and intellectual abilities to work toward a better society), which was Eliot's aim to instill in her readers.

In 1861 Eliot published a short novel, *Silas Marner*, which through use as a school textbook is her best-known work. This work

is about a man who has been alone for a long time and who has lost his faith in his fellow man. He learns to trust others again by learning to love a child who he meets through chance, but whom he eventually adopts as his own.

In 1860 and 1861 Eliot lived abroad in Florence, Italy, and studied Renaissance (a movement that began in fourteenth-century Italy, that spread throughout Europe until the seventeenth century, with an emphasis in arts and literature) history and culture. She wrote a historical novel, *Romola* (published 1862–1863), set in Renaissance Florence. This work has never won a place among the author's major achievements, yet it stands as a major example of historical fiction.

Eliot aimed at creating confidence in her readers by her honesty in describing human beings. In her next novel, *Felix Holt* (1866), she came as close as she ever did to setting up her fiction in order to convey her beliefs. In this work, however, it is not her moral but her political thought that is expressed as she addressed the social questions that were then disturbing England. The hero of the novel is a young reformer who carries Eliot's message to the working class. This message is that they could get themselves out of their miserable circumstances much more effectively by expecting more of themselves both morally and intellectually and not just through reform of the government or through union activities. In contrast to Holt, the conservative politician is shown to be part of the corrupt political process and a person who is dishonest with the working class people that he represents. The heroine of the novel supports this political lesson by choosing the genuine, but poor, reformer rather than the



George Eliot.

Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery.

opportunist (a person who takes advantage of any situations for personal gain with no regard for right or wrong) of her own class.

### Middlemarch

Eliot did not publish any novels for some years after *Felix Holt*, and it might have appeared that her creative thread was gone. After traveling in Spain in 1867, she produced a dramatic poem, *The Spanish Gipsy*, in the following year, but neither this poem nor the other poems of the period are as good as her nonpoetic writing.

Then in 1871 and 1872 Eliot published her masterpiece, *Middlemarch*, a broad understanding of human life. The main strand of its complex plot is the familiar Eliot tale of a girl's understanding of life. It tells of her awakening to the many complications involved in a person's life and that she has not used the true religion of God as a guide for how she should live her life. The social setting makes *Middlemarch* a major account of society at that time as well as a work of art. The title—drawn from the name of the fictional town in which most of the action occurs—and the subtitle, *A Study of Provincial Life*, suggest that the art of fiction here develops a grasp of the life of human communities, as well as that of individuals.

Eliot's last novel was *Daniel Deronda* (1874–1876). It is perhaps her least-read work, although recent critical attention has revealed its high value in at least one half of its plot, while raising still unanswered questions about its less successful half. The novel contrasts and interweaves two stories. One is a marriage for personal advantages by a young woman of sharp intelligence who discovers that she has given herself to a cheat. The other story is the discovery by a young British gentleman that he is of Jewish origin. This inspires in him to dedicate and commit his life to furthering the cause of the Jewish community to create a Zionist resettlement in Palestine. The moral relationship of these widely different situations and characters is one of the chief interests of the author, but although her intention is clear, her book and its message is not.

In 1880, after the death of Lewes, Eliot married a friend of long standing, John Walter Cross. She died in London on December

22, 1880, having gained the extreme respect and admiration from her peers and fellow novelists.

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## T. S. ELIOT

**Born:** September 26, 1888

**St. Louis, Missouri**

**Died:** January 4, 1965

**London, England**

*American-born English author, poet, critic, playwright, editor, and publisher*

**T**. S. Eliot, American-English author, was one of the most significant poets writing in English in the twentieth century, as well as one of the most influential critics, an interesting playwright, editor, and publisher.

### **Eliot's youth**

On September 26, 1888, Thomas Stearns Eliot was born in St. Louis, Missouri, a member of the third generation of a New England family that had come to St. Louis in

1834. Eliot's grandfather, William Greenleaf Eliot, Unitarian minister and founder of schools, a university, and charities, was the family patriarch, or leader. While carrying on a tradition of public service, the Eliots never forgot their New England ties. T. S. Eliot claimed that he was a child of both the Southwest and New England. In Massachusetts he missed Missouri's dark river, cardinal birds, and lush vegetation. In Missouri he missed the fir trees, song sparrows, red granite shores, and blue sea of Massachusetts.

### *Eliot family*

Henry Ware Eliot, the father of T. S. Eliot, became chairman of the board of a brick company and served the schools and charities his father had helped found, as well as others. He married a New Englander, Charlotte Champ. After having six children, she focused her energy on education and legal protection for the young. She also wrote a biography, some religious poems, and a dramatic poem (1926).

Eliot grew up within the family's tradition of service to religion, community, and education. Years later he declared, "Missouri and the Mississippi have made a deeper impression on me than any part of the world." The Eliots spent summers on Cape Ann, Massachusetts.

### *Education of a poet*

In St. Louis young Eliot received a classical education privately and at Smith Academy, originally named Eliot Academy. He composed and read the valedictory (something that involves a farewell) poem for his graduation in 1905. After a year at Milton Academy in Massachusetts, he went to Har-



T. S. Eliot.

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vard University in 1906. Eliot was shy and independent and he made a good impression as a contributor and editor of the *Harvard Advocate*. He completed his bachelor of arts degree in three years.

Eliot's stay at Harvard to earn a master of arts in philosophy (the study of knowledge) was interrupted by a year at the Sorbonne (The University of Paris) in Paris, France. He returned to Harvard in 1911 but in 1914 he went overseas again on a Harvard scholarship to study in Germany. When World War I (1914–18; a war fought between the German-led Central powers and the Allies: England, the United States, and France, among

other nations) broke out, he transferred to Merton College, Oxford. Ezra Pound (1885–1972), the young American poet, discovered Eliot at Oxford. They shared a commitment to learning and poetry. After Oxford, Eliot decided to stay in England and in 1915 married Vivienne Haigh-Wood. He taught at Highgate Junior School for boys near London (1915–1916) and then worked for Lloyd's Bank. While teaching, he completed his dissertation (a writing on a subject that is required for a doctorate degree), *Knowledge and Experience in the Philosophy of F. H. Bradley*. The dissertation was accepted, but Eliot did not return to the United States to defend it and therefore did not receive his doctorate.

### Early poetry

When the United States entered World War I in 1917, Eliot tried to join the U.S. Navy but was rejected for physical reasons. That year his first volume of poetry, *Prufrock and Other Observations*, appeared and almost immediately became the focus for discussion and debate. Eliot's writing style spoke to the confusion and bad feelings that World War I had created in European and American societies. This was most effective in the poem "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock."

### Critic and editor

Eliot served as literary editor of the *Egoist*, a feminist (in support of equality for women) magazine, from 1917 to 1919. The back pages of the *Egoist* were written by a series of young poet-editors, and here, with the aid of Ezra Pound, the new poetry and commentary was written. Eliot was also writing anonymous (a work where no name is

given to the creator) reviews for the *London Times* and publishing essays. In 1919 two of his most influential pieces appeared. "Tradition and the Individual Talent" and "Hamlet and His Problems." Some of his early critical essays were *The Sacred Wood* (1920), *Homage to John Dryden* (1924), *Selected Essays: 1917–1932* (1932), and *The Use of Poetry and the Use of Criticism* (1933).

### The Waste Land

While recovering from exhaustion in 1921, Eliot wrote *The Waste Land*, one of the most influential and debated poems of the century. In *The Waste Land*, the weakening of society is compared with a shattered wasteland. The poem proposes solutions for recreating personal and caring communities through a variety of methods and with the joining of different religious beliefs.

Also in 1922 Eliot founded the *Criterion*, a small magazine that appeared until 1939. As author of *The Waste Land* and editor of the *Criterion*, Eliot assumed an important role in literature in America and in Great Britain. He left Lloyd's Bank in 1925 and joined Faber and Faber, Ltd., a publisher, eventually rising to a position of leadership there.

### Religious and cultural views

In 1927 Eliot became an Anglo-Catholic and a British citizen. In *After Strange Gods* (1934) Eliot took the literary ideas of his "Tradition and the Individual Talent" and demonstrated how they could apply to society. He also declared that too many freethinking Jews would damage the kind of Christian culture he proposed. This work, along with *The Idea of a Christian Society* (1939) and *Notes toward a Definition of*

*Culture* (1948), indicated Eliot's stand against the pluralistic society (a society that allows freedom of religion) of most Western democracies.

*Ash Wednesday* (1930) is the title of this six-part poem that refers to the beginning of Lent. The poem focuses on a person who is isolated from God and who sets out to find Him. The poem shows the prayer and progress of this person. The tone of sincerity and passionate yearning, of anxiety and some joy, was new for Eliot.

In 1934 Eliot published *After Strange Gods* and also brought his religious and dramatic interests together in *The Rock*. This display combines narrative prose (a story that is told in common, nonpoetic, language) with poetic dialogue (poetry written as though the poet were speaking).

In 1935 *Murder in the Cathedral*, perhaps Eliot's best play, was produced at Canterbury Cathedral. It has to do with Archbishop Thomas Becket (1118–1170), who was assassinated (killed for political reasons) before the altar there in 1170. *The Family Reunion*, the first of Eliot's four professional plays, appeared in 1939. This was followed by *The Cocktail Party* (1940), *The Confidential Clerk* (1954), and *The Elder Statesman* (1959).

### Four Quartets

In 1936 Eliot concluded his *Poems 1909–1935* with "Burnt Norton," the first of what became the *Four Quartets*. "Burnt Norton," in which Eliot makes use of his repeated rose-garden symbolism, grew out of a visit to a deserted Gloucestershire mansion. This poem brought about three others, each associated with a place. "East Coker" (1940) is set

in the village of Eliot's Massachusetts ancestors. The last two quartets appeared with the publication of *Four Quartets* (1943). The third, "The Dry Salvages," named for three small islands off the Massachusetts coast where Eliot vacationed in his youth; and the fourth, "Little Gidding," derives from a visit to the site of a religious community, where the British King Charles I (1600–1649) paused before he surrendered and went to his death. Each of the quartets is a separate whole that also is related to the others. The theme, developed differently, is the same in each: One may seek or wait in any place at any time, for God is in all places at all times.

Eliot, midway through his composition of *Four Quartets*, published *Old Possum's Book of Practical Cats* (1939). Here Eliot the fabulist (a writer of fables) appeared, and his humor and wit are demonstrated in this piece of work.

### Honor and old age

In 1947 Eliot's first wife died. In 1948 he received the Nobel Prize and the British Order of Merit, and the list of his honors continued to grow. After the *Four Quartets*, he committed himself to the poetic drama with *On Poetry and Poets* (1957), and the editing of collections of his poetry and plays. In 1957 Eliot married his private secretary, Valerie Fischer, and remained married until his death on January 4, 1965, in London. His ashes were placed in St. Michael's Church, East Coker, his ancestral village, on April 17, 1965.

Many poets and artists paid final tribute to T. S. Eliot, including Ezra Pound: "A grand poet and brotherly friend." A committed Christian in an important age, Eliot tried to restore the religious roots of European and



American culture. His career recalls the flexible writer of the eighteenth century.

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## ELIZABETH I

**Born:** September 7, 1533

**Greenwich, England**

**Died:** March 24, 1603

**Surrey, England**

*English queen*

**E**lizabeth I was queen of England and Ireland from 1558 to 1603. She preserved stability in a nation torn by political and religious tension and led the country during a time of great exploration and achievement.

### **Ruled by her siblings**

Born in Greenwich, England, on September 7, 1533, Elizabeth I was the daughter of Henry VIII and his second wife, Anne Boleyn. In May 1536, her mother was beheaded to clear the way for Henry to marry Jane Sey-

mour. Parliament declared that the throne would pass to any children born from this marriage, rather than to Elizabeth or her older sister Mary. Jane did produce a son, Edward, but Elizabeth continued to be brought up in the royal household. She received a good education and was an excellent student, especially in languages (she learned Latin, French, and Italian) and music.

Elizabeth barely survived the short reign of her brother, Edward VI (1537–1553). All of the people in her household were arrested, and she was a prisoner in her own home. In this period she also experienced ill health but pursued her studies under her tutor, Roger Ascham. In 1553, following the death of Edward VI, her sister Mary I (1516–1558) came to the throne with the intention of leading the country back to the Catholic faith. Under Edward, the Protestants had become the major religious group in the country. They opposed many decisions made by the pope (the leader of the Catholic Church) and placed less emphasis on ceremonies than Catholics did. After a Protestant attempt to overthrow Mary, Elizabeth was imprisoned, although she had played no part in the plan. She was held for two months before being released, but Mary continued to have her people keep an eye on Elizabeth.

### **The new queen**

In November 1558, Mary died, and Elizabeth took over the throne. At the age of twenty-five, Elizabeth was a tall and well-poised woman. What she lacked in feminine warmth, she made up for in the wisdom she had gained from a difficult and unhappy youth. One of her first actions as queen was to appoint Sir William Cecil (1520–1598;

later Lord Burghley) as her chief secretary. Cecil was to remain her closest adviser; like Elizabeth, he was politically cautious. They both knew that the key to England's success lay in balancing the two great continental powers, France and Spain, against each other, so that neither could bring its full force against England.

When Elizabeth took the throne, conditions in England were very bad. The country was not strong enough, either in men or money, to oppose either France or Spain. By the Treaty of Edinburgh in 1560, though, Elizabeth was able to decrease French control of Scotland, which helped the English. She also worked to improve the country from within. Industry and trade were expanded, and there was an increase in the development of natural resources. This was the beginning of what came to be known as the Elizabethan Age, a time of great adventure and exploration and the creation of much famous literature.

Since Elizabeth was unmarried, many were interested in the question of the succession (who would be next in line for the throne). She had a large number of suitors, but as the years passed it became clear that she would not marry and take the chance of losing her power. Many praised Elizabeth for her skillful handling of her courtships. Her hand in marriage was an important tool in foreign relations. By refusing to marry, Elizabeth could further her general policy of balancing the continental powers. Yet, this was a very dangerous policy. Had Elizabeth died, as she nearly did early in her reign, or had any one of the many assassination plots against her succeeded, the country would have been plunged into chaos trying to decide who would take over for her.

### *Religious settlement*

After the increase in Protestantism under Edward VI and the Catholic reaction under Mary, the question of the nature of the Church needed to be settled immediately. The Acts of Unity and Supremacy of 1559 provided an answer. Protestantism was established as the national faith, and Elizabeth enforced it as the supreme governor of the Church of England. A number of English people remained Catholic. The Church of England was attacked by both Catholics and Puritans (Protestants who wanted to make the church "pure" by throwing out Catholic policies).

Because of the fear that a Catholic, such as Elizabeth's cousin, Mary, Queen of Scots (1542–1587), would rise against the government, Parliament urged Elizabeth to use harsh measures to control the Catholic opposition. For the most part the queen resisted these pressures. While laws relating to the Catholics did become more strict over time, the queen preferred to promote a feeling of tolerance that would allow her to retain the patriotic loyalty of many of the English Catholics.

The Puritans continued to wage a long battle in the Church, in Parliament, and in the country at large to make the religious settlement more strict. Elizabeth found that she could control Parliament through the force of her own personality. It was, however, some time before she could control the Church and the countryside as effectively. It was only with the promotion of John Whitgift to the post of archbishop of Canterbury that she found her most effective weapon against the Puritans. With apparent royal support but some criticism from Burghley, Whitgift was able to use the Church courts to keep the Puritans in line. By the later years of Elizabeth's reign, the Puritan movement was much weaker than it had been, mainly because many of its prominent supporters had died.

### ***Foreign relations***

In the 1580s Spain emerged as the chief threat to England. Elizabeth found herself under increasing pressure from Protestants to take a firm stand against Catholic Spain. After waiting until England's naval power could be built up, she began to approve attacks on Spanish ships. Her decision in 1585 to send a force under the Earl of Leicester (c. 1532–1588) to intervene on behalf of the

Netherlands in its revolt against Spain meant the temporary end of her planned policy of balance and peace. The struggle against Spain ended with the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588. The victory, however, owed as much to luck and Spanish mistakes as it did to English skill.

Elizabeth's ability to speak many languages came in handy when dealing with representatives of foreign governments. She also showed a considerable ability to rally the people around her. At Tilbury, for instance, when the English army gathered in preparation for an attack on Spain, the queen appeared to deliver one of her most stirring speeches: "I am come amongst you . . . to live and die amongst you all. . . . I know I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a king and of a King of England too."

### ***Difficulties and decline***

In some ways, the defeat of the Spanish Armada marked the high point of Elizabeth's reign; the time that followed has been referred to as "the darker years." The Spanish threat never really went away, and further English military operations suffered from poor leadership and low funds. Catholic plots to oust Elizabeth continued, and one such attempt led to the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, in 1587. The latter years of Elizabeth's reign were also marked by increasing difficulties in Ireland. The English had never effectively controlled Ireland, and under Elizabeth the situation became worse.

The latter years of Elizabeth's reign were also a time when severe tensions emerged in domestic politics. The finances of the Crown, exhausted by war since the 1580s, were in bad

shape. The economic plight of the country as a whole was not much better. Moreover, problems in the court seemed to increase in the closing stages of her reign, as corruption (unlawful activity) and struggling for patronage (the power to make appointments to government jobs for political advantage) became common. For all the greatness of her reign—one that had witnessed the naval feats of Sir Francis Drake (c. 1541–1596) and Sir John Hawkins (1532–1595), and the literary accomplishments of Sir Philip Sidney (1554–1586), Edmund Spenser (c. 1552–1599), William Shakespeare (1564–1616), and Christopher Marlowe (1564–1593)—Elizabeth left behind quite a mess for her successor, James VI (1566–1625) of Scotland, the son of Mary, Queen of Scots. On March 24, 1603, Elizabeth died. According to one account, she “departed this life, mildly like a lamb, easily like a ripe apple from the tree.”

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## ELIZABETH II

**Born:** April 21, 1926

**London, England**

*English queen*

Elizabeth II became queen of the United Kingdom upon the death of her father, George VI (1895–1952), in 1952. A popular queen, she is respected for her knowledge of and participation in state affairs. In addition, Elizabeth II has started new trends toward modernization and openness in the royal family. Her efforts have not been unsuccessful.

### Early life

Elizabeth II was born on April 21, 1926, in London, England, the oldest child of the Duke of York and his wife, Elizabeth. Her father became King George VI of Great Britain and Ireland in 1936 when his older brother Edward VIII (1894–1972) gave up the throne. Along with her younger sister, Margaret, Elizabeth was educated at home by private tutors. She particularly liked history, languages, and music. She later took an interest in national affairs. As a teenager Elizabeth began to make her first public appearances. She married Philip Mountbatten in November 1947, and they had four children—Prince Charles (1948–), Princess Anne (1950–), Prince Andrew (1960–), and Prince Edward (1964–).

### The new queen

After Elizabeth became queen in 1952, she tried in her own way to make the British monarchy more modern and more sensitive to the public. She began hosting informal luncheons at Buckingham Palace (the London residence of the queen) to which a variety of people from fields such as industry, theater, and sports were invited. The attendees of her garden parties became increasingly diverse. She showed interest and skill in

use of the broadcast media, notably in her annual Christmas television messages, in royally approved documentaries, and in television broadcasts of events such as Prince Charles's naming ceremony as Prince of Wales and royal weddings.

Perhaps the most popular of Elizabeth's attempts was the "walkabout," in which she met, shook hands, and chatted with ordinary people in the crowds that gathered around her. These strolls revealed her belief that "I have to be seen to be believed."

### *A popular traveler*

At least part of Elizabeth's popularity could be attributed to her worldwide travels. Her engaging and gracious attitude during these travels contributed to the warmth and enthusiasm of the receptions that greeted her. Between 1970 and 1985 she had an amazingly full schedule. She visited France in the spring of 1972, attended the Commonwealth Conference in Ottawa in 1973, and took part in the United States celebrations of the two-hundredth anniversary of American independence from England. She then headed north to Montreal to open the 1976 Summer Olympics. She also traveled some fifty-six thousand miles as part of her 1977 Silver Jubilee celebrations, which marked her twenty-fifth year as queen. In 1979 she traveled to Kuwait, Bahrain, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, and Oman.

In April 1982 Elizabeth made an important visit to Ottawa, Canada, where she proclaimed the New Canadian constitution, which cut the last legal links between the United Kingdom and Canada. In March 1984 she visited Jamaica, Grand Cayman Island, Mexico, California, and British Columbia,

Canada. While in California, her first trip to the west coast of North America, she made some twenty public appearances, including a visit with Prince Philip to President Ronald Reagan's (1911–) Santa Barbara ranch and to Yosemite National Park. She went to North America again in 1984, visiting Canada for the fourteenth time and afterward the United States.

### *Happy events*

Amid all the travels, Elizabeth celebrated many joyous personal events. On November 20, 1972, the queen and Prince Philip celebrated their twenty-fifth wedding anniversary. One hundred couples from all over Britain who had the same anniversary date were invited to share in the occasion. On November 14, 1973, Princess Anne married Mark Philips and later had two children: Peter and Zara. Prince Charles married Lady Diana Spencer on July 29, 1981, and had two sons, Prince William and Prince Henry. Prince Andrew (made Duke of York) married Sarah Ferguson on July 23, 1986, and they had two daughters, Princess Beatrice and Princess Eugenie.

Perhaps the happiest event was Elizabeth's Silver Jubilee in 1977. Countless sports events, festivals, carnivals, races, concerts, commemorative stamps, and other activities marked an outpouring of devotion to the queen and to the royal family as an institution. On May 4, 1977, both Houses of Parliament presented loyal addresses to Elizabeth II in Westminster Hall. At St. Paul's Cathedral in June the queen and her family celebrated a Thanksgiving service. The queen indicated her concern for her subjects by voicing her desire that the Silver Jubilee year be a special

time “for people who find themselves the victims of human conflict.” She traveled widely to meet her subjects during the year, and established the Silver Jubilee Trust Fund, headed by the Prince of Wales, which was designed “to help the young to help others.”

Elizabeth Longford, one of Queen Elizabeth’s biographers, has suggested that it was only after the jubilee, when she was able to see the loyalty and respect her subjects demonstrated, that she realized her possibilities as a monarch. She became more confident, more open, and more ready to reveal her sense of humor, strong common sense, great energy, and personal character.

### *Troubles on the horizon*

However, in the late 1980s, Elizabeth grew concerned over the state and the future of the royal family. The British press increasingly reported the problems in her children’s marriages. It appeared to many that Prince Charles was not interested in succeeding to the throne. There were rumors that Elizabeth II would hand over the throne to her grandson, Prince William.

Her troubles seemed to peak in 1992, and she herself called it a horrible year. The twenty-year marriage of Princess Anne ended in divorce. Prince Charles and Prince Andrew officially separated from their wives. On the night of November 20, fire badly damaged a good section of Windsor Castle (one of Queen Elizabeth’s official residences). A public outcry immediately arose when it was announced that the castle’s restoration would be paid for with taxpayers’ money. The British people felt that the queen, who enjoyed a tax-exempt (not taxed) income in the millions, should pay for the restoration. Two days later, Buck-



*Elizabeth II.*

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ingham Palace announced that the queen and her family would no longer be exempt from taxation. This announcement was seen as a gesture of political smarts and goodwill. The year ended on a happier note, as Princess Anne remarried on December 12.

In 1995 Elizabeth wrote a letter to Prince Charles and Princess Diana urging them to divorce, prompted by separate television interviews where they discussed their unhappy fourteen-year marriage. They were divorced in 1996, as were Prince Andrew and Sarah Ferguson. Despite these very public family problems, Elizabeth generally remained popular.

Her resolve was tested, however, after the August 1997 death of her former daughter-in-law, Princess Diana. Some Britons lashed out at the queen for “being too bound up by protocol [the expected conduct of a king or queen].” Surprised by the criticism, she broke tradition and addressed the nation in a live broadcast the day before the funeral, paying tribute to Diana. This gesture was seen as significant, as the queen usually addressed the nation only on Christmas Day. This was only the second exception to that rule in her forty-five-year reign.

### ***An energetic queen***

In spite of problems and public stresses, Elizabeth refuses to slow down. She continues to enjoy time with her family, country life, horse-breeding, and horse-racing.

Likewise, Elizabeth continues to practice her royal duties. The queen, as head of state, maintains close contact with the prime minister, with whom she meets weekly. She also receives important foreign office telegrams and a daily summary of events in Parliament. She hosts both British and foreign leaders and receives other notable visitors from overseas. Elizabeth also heads the navy, army, and air force of Great Britain. In addition, she succeeded her father as colonel in chief of all the Guards Regiments and the Corps of Royal Engineers, as well as captain-general of the Royal Regiment of Artillery and the Honorable Artillery Company. She is president or financial supporter of more than seven hundred organizations. In 1998 some of her many activities included officially opening the new British Library in London, unveiling a statue of former Prime Minister Winston Churchill (1874–1965) in Paris, meeting with former

Far East prisoners of war, and conducting state visits to Brunei and Malaysia.

The year 2002 marked the fiftieth anniversary of Elizabeth II's rise to the throne. On February 6 in that year, she delivered her Golden Jubilee message to the United Kingdom. Elizabeth II is only the fifth monarch to celebrate a Golden Jubilee.

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## DUKE ELLINGTON

**Born:** April 29, 1899

**Washington, D.C.**

**Died:** May 24, 1974

**New York, New York**

*African American composer, band leader,  
and pianist*

**D**uke Ellington is considered by many to be one of America's most brilliant jazz composers (writers of music) of the twentieth century. Ellington's

classics include “Don’t Get Around Much Anymore,” “Mood Indigo,” and “I Let a Song Get Out of My Head.”

### ***Early life and career***

On April 29, 1899, Edward Kennedy Ellington was born in Washington, D.C., to James Edward and Daisy Ellington. With his father, a Methodist, and his mother, a Baptist, Ellington’s upbringing had strong religious influences. An artistic child, Ellington passed up an art scholarship to study at the Pratt Institute in Brooklyn, New York, in order to devote his time to his first love: music, specifically the piano. By the age of fourteen, Ellington had written his first two pieces, “Soda Fountain Rag” and “What You Gonna Do When the Bed Breaks Down?” During this time Ellington gained his nickname, “Duke,” after a friend recommended that Ellington should have some sort of title.

He divided his studies between music and commercial art, and by 1918 established a reputation as a bandleader and agent. In 1923 he went to New York City and soon became a successful bandleader. In 1927 he secured an important engagement at the Cotton Club in Harlem, a section of New York City, and remained there (aside from occasional tours) until 1932.

Ellington’s band made its first European trip in 1932. After World War II (1939–45), the band toured Europe regularly, with short trips to South America, the Far East, and Australia. One peak period for the band was from 1939 to 1942, when many critics considered its performances superior to any other jazz ensemble (group).



*Duke Ellington.*

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### ***Duke’s music***

As a composer Ellington was responsible for numerous works that achieved popular success, some written with his band members and with his co-arranger Billy Strayhorn. The Duke’s most significant music was written specifically for his own band and soloists. Always sensitive to the nuances (small variations) of tone of his soloists (single performers), Ellington wrote features for individual sidemen and used his knowledge of their characteristic sounds when composing other works. His arrangements achieved a remarkable blend of individual and ensemble contributions. However, because most of his works



were written for his own band, interpretations by others have rarely been satisfactory.

With *Creole Rhapsody* (1931) and *Reminiscing in Tempo* (1935) Ellington was the first jazz composer to break the three-minute time limitation of the 78-rpm record. After the 1940s he concentrated more on longer works, including several suites (arrangements of music) built around a central theme, frequently an aspect of African American life. Always a fine orchestral pianist, with a style influenced by the Harlem stylists of the 1920s, Ellington remained in the background on most of his early recordings. After the 1950s he emerged as a highly imaginative piano soloist.

### **Duke's legacy**

Ellington was the recipient of numerous Grammy Awards throughout his career, and in 1959 he was awarded the Springarn Medal from the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). He was nominated for the Pulitzer Prize in 1964. The city of New York gave him a prize and Yale University awarded him a doctor of music degree in 1967; Morgan State and Washington universities also gave him honorary degrees that year. On his seventieth birthday Ellington was honored by President Richard Nixon (1913–1994) at a White House ceremony and was given the Medal of Freedom. In 1970 he was elected to the National Institute of Arts and Letters.

Ellington continued to compose and perform until his death from lung cancer on May 24, 1974, in New York City. His band, headed by his son Mercer, survived him, but as Phyl Garland of *Ebony* magazine writes, the elder Ellington will always be remem-

bered for “the daring innovations that came to mark his music—the strange modulations (changing from one key to another) built upon lush melodies that ramble into unexpected places, the unorthodox (untraditional) construction of songs. . . .”

Ellington's legacy is that he remains one of the greatest talents in all of jazz, a remarkable feat considering the history of jazz is packed with legendary names. His influence over musicians is as important today as it was during Ellington's time.

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## RALPH WALDO EMERSON

**Born:** May 25, 1803

**Boston, Massachusetts**

**Died:** April 27, 1882

**Concord, Massachusetts**

*American author, minister, and philosopher*

Ralph Waldo Emerson was one of the most thought-provoking American cultural leaders of the mid-nineteenth century. He represented a minority of Americans with his unconventional ideas and actions, but by the end of his life many considered him to be a wise person.

### *Early life*

Ralph Waldo Emerson was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on May 25, 1803, to a fairly well-known New England family. His father was an important Boston minister. Young Emerson was only eight, however, when his father died and left the family to face hard times. His mother ran a boarding-house to support the family, which consisted of six children. The poverty in which the Emerson family lived did not prevent his mother from sending the promising boy to the Boston Latin School, where he received the best education of his time. In 1817, at age fourteen, he entered Harvard College. As a student, he studied more and relaxed less than some of his classmates. He won several minor prizes for his writing. When he was seventeen, he started keeping a journal and continued it for over half a century.

### *Unitarian minister*

Emerson was slow in finding himself. After graduation from Harvard in 1821, he took a job as a teacher. Gradually he moved toward the ministry. He studied at the Harvard Divinity School, meanwhile continuing his journal and other writings. In 1826 he began his career as a Unitarian minister. Emerson received several offers before an unusually attractive one presented itself: a position as the junior pastor at Boston's noted

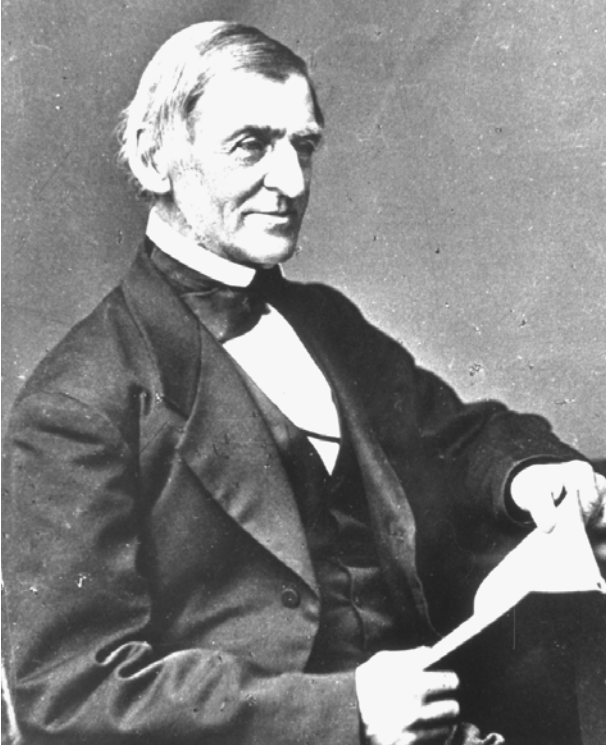
Second Church, with the promise that he would quickly become the senior pastor. His reputation spread swiftly. Soon he was chosen chaplain (a clergyman who carries out religious services for institutions) of the Massachusetts Senate, and he was elected to the Boston School Committee.

Emerson's personal life flowered even more than his professional one, as he fell deeply in love, for the only time in his life, with a charming New Hampshire girl named Ellen Tucker. Their wedding, in September 1829, marked the start of a wonderful marriage. But it was all too short, for she died a year and a half later, leaving Emerson alone. Though he tried to find comfort in his religion, he was unsuccessful. As a result he developed religious doubts. In September 1832 he resigned his pastorate. According to his farewell sermon, he could no longer believe in celebrating Holy Communion.

Emerson's decision to leave the ministry was more difficult than he thought, because it left him with no other work to do. After months of struggling and even sickness, he scraped together enough money to take a ten-month tour of Europe.

### *Professional lecturer*

The times were on Emerson's side, for he found on his return to America that a new tradition was emerging that held a unique promise for him. This was the lyceum, a system of lecturing that started in the late 1820s, established itself in the 1830s, and rose to great popularity during the next two decades. The local lecture clubs that sprang up discovered that they had to pay for the best lecturers, and from this he earned a modest salary. After a few seasons Emerson organized his own lecture



Ralph Waldo Emerson.

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courses in addition to his lyceum lectures. His lectures developed into essays and books, and he began publishing these in the early 1840s.

### **Emerson's creed**

Emerson spoke out against materialism (the belief that material or physical things—not spiritual—are the most important), formal religion, and slavery. Emerson spoke of slavery in the context of the Fugitive Slave Law (1850), saying, in one of his rare bursts of obscenity (foul language), “I will not obey it, by God.”

Emerson, however, was not merely against certain things; he both preached and

modeled a positive attitude. He became America's leading transcendentalist (a person who believes that reality is discovered through thought and not experience). That is, he believed in a reality and a knowledge that rose above the everyday reality to which Americans were accustomed. He believed in the honesty of the person. He believed in a spiritual universe ruled by a spiritual Oversoul (the basis of all spiritual existence), with which each individual soul should try to connect. Touchingly enough, he believed in America. Though he ranked as his country's most searching critic, he helped as much as anyone to establish the “American identity.” He not only called out for a genuinely American literature, but he also helped begin it through his own writings. In addition, he supported the cause of American music and American art. His grand purpose, as a matter of fact, was to assist in the creation of a native American national culture.

### **Publishing his ideas**

Emerson's first two books were brilliant. He had published a pamphlet, *Nature*, in 1836. He later issued two volumes of essays for a broader public, however, *Essays, First Series*, in 1841 and *Essays, Second Series*, in 1844. Their subjects were man, nature, and God. In such pieces as “Self-reliance,” “Spiritual Laws,” “Nature,” “The Poet,” and “The Over-soul,” Emerson explained the inborn goodness of man, the joys of nature and their spiritual significance, and a universal god (a god that exists everywhere and belongs to all). The tone of the essays was positive, but Emerson did not neglect the realities of life. In such essays as “Compensation” and “Experience,” he tried to suggest how to deal with human losses and failings.

Emerson's next book, after the second series of essays, was a volume of his poems. After that came more than one remarkable volume of text. In *Representative Men: Seven Lectures* (1850) Emerson considered the similarities of great men, devoting individual essays to such figures as Plato (c. 427–c. 347 B.C.E.), William Shakespeare (1564–1616), and Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749–1832). *English Traits* (1856) resulted from an extended visit to Great Britain.

Emerson married his second wife, Lydia Jackson of Plymouth, in 1835. They had four children, one of whom, Waldo, died when he was a little boy; the others outlived their famous father. After leaving his pastorate in Boston, Massachusetts, he moved to nearby Concord, where he stayed for the rest of his life.

Emerson's public life also expanded. During the 1850s he was drawn deeply into the struggle against slavery. Though he found some of the abolitionists (people who worked to end slavery) almost as distasteful as the slaveholders, he knew where his place had to be. Emerson became a Republican, voting for Abraham Lincoln (1809–1965).

### Last years

After the Civil War (1861–65; a war between the proslavery Southern states and the antislavery Northern states), Emerson continued to lecture and write. Though he had nothing really new to say anymore, audiences continued to crowd his lectures and many readers bought his books. The best of the final books were *Society and Solitude* (1870) and *Letters and Social Aims* (1876). He was losing his memory, however, and needed more and more help from others, especially

his daughter Ellen. He was nearly seventy-nine when he died on April 27, 1882.

America mourned Emerson's passing, as did much of the rest of the Western world (the United States and European countries). In the general judgment, he had been both a great writer and a great man. Certainly he had been America's leading essayist for half a century. And he had been not only one of the most wise but one of the most sincere of men. He had shown his countrymen the possibilities of the human spirit, and he had done so without a trace of arrogance.

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## DESIDERIUS ERASMUS

**Born:** October 27, 1466

**Rotterdam, Netherlands**

**Died:** July 12, 1536

**Basel, Switzerland**

*Dutch scholar and priest*

The Dutch scholar Erasmus was the dominant figure of the early sixteenth-century humanist movement (a movement during the Renaissance period devoted to human welfare). The intellectual middleman (one who negotiates) during the last years of Christian unity, he remains one of European culture's most controversial figures.

### **Early years**

Desiderius Erasmus was born in Rotterdam, Netherlands, probably on October 27, 1466, the second son of a priest, Roger Gerard, and Margaret, a physician's daughter. His parents were unmarried at the time of his birth. School life shaped Erasmus from his fifth year onward. His parents enrolled him and his brother at a school in Deventer with the Brethren of the Common Life from 1475 to 1484. Around 1484 his parents died of the plague (a highly contagious disease that results in the deaths of large numbers of people) and their appointed guardians sent the boys to another, more conservative school also run by the Brethren for three more years. From this religious community, Erasmus was educated in classical Latin and developed an appreciation of Christianity beyond its traditional basis.

### **From Steyn to Cambridge**

Erasmus entered the Augustinian monastery (a house of monks who have taken vows to dedicate their lives to religion) at Steyn in 1487 and took monastic vows in 1488; he was ordained (officially installed in a church position) a priest in 1492. Erasmus found Steyn crude and rustic. His intellectual abilities offered the first step out, when the bishop of Cambrai employed Erasmus as his

secretary in 1493 and rewarded his work with a salary for study in Paris, France, in 1495.

Paris provided a different environment for Erasmus. He moved in scholarly circles, writing poetry and experimenting with styles of educational writing that later became the publications *Adagia* and *Colloquia*. He sought students and patrons (people who give financial support to artists or writers) until 1499, when a student took him to England.

The visit to England was life changing for Erasmus. English humanists were studying Scripture (Biblical writings) and the early Church leaders, and working toward reform of the Catholic Church and the educational process that served it. Friendships with John Colet (c. 1467–1519), Sir Thomas More (c. 1477–1535), and others inspired Erasmus's interest in religious studies and turned him to the Greek language as the key for his research. *Enchiridion militis Christiani* (Handbook of the Militant Christian, published 1503, though begun a decade before) outlined conduct that would further man's spiritual growth and bring about the moral principles and godliness of what Erasmus's group called the "philosophy of Christ."

In 1506 Erasmus traveled to Italy. He anonymously (without giving a name or an identity) published *Julius exclusus* (he never admitted authorship), in which St. Peter bars Julius (then Pope Julius II [1443–1513] who was waging war with Bologna in Italy) from heaven and harshly speaks against his wars and treasure. Erasmus polished his Greek in Italy and formed a relationship with the printing house of Aldus Manutius in Venice, the first link to publishing his writings that secured his financial and professional independence.

Back in England by 1509, disappointed with the Church's wars and its clergy's weaknesses, Erasmus wrote *Encomium moriae* (The Praise of Folly), a commentary of the obstacles restricting the fulfillment of Christ's teaching. Though not formally released from monastic vows until 1517, Erasmus was now freed of Steyn by his mounting reputation. He worked as a professor at Cambridge (1511–1514) and settled into the occupation for which his study and travel had prepared him.

### Major publications

Erasmus's *Novum instrumentum*, a heavily explained edition of the New Testament placing texts in Greek and revised Latin side by side, appeared in 1516. It was a turning point for scholars and reformers that brought educated Europeans closer to Erasmus's early works, and paved the way for the literary and educational classics of the Christian humanist society.

Erasmus then returned to Europe to continue his efforts and resume the circulation of his works. Froben published his nine-volume edition of St. Jerome in 1516 and in the next two decades issued Erasmus's extensive editions of early Christian authors, including St. Cyprian (1520), St. Ambrose (1527), and St. Augustine (1529); he also circulated critical writings and essays on immortality and revised editions of the literary works.

Another type of writing by Erasmus's appeared in 1516, while he briefly served the future emperor Charles V (1500–1558) as councilor (a person who gives advice). He prepared a guide for educating princes to rule justly, *Institutio principis Christiani*, and in 1517 composed *Querela pacis* (The Com-



*Desiderius Erasmus.*

plaint of Peace), speaking against war as an instrument of oppression (the act of keeping down, or suppressing, by forceful authority) and warning rulers to fulfill their obligation to preserve Christian harmony. Erasmus thus demonstrated his sensitivity to Europe's approaching split in the Christian Church.

### Erasmus and Reformation Europe

Erasmus's influence could not accomplish the vision of Christian renovation expressed in his New Testament dedication and preface, which urged Pope Leo X (1457–1521) to make Rome the center of reform and to make Christ's words available to every commoner who wished to read it. Following Martin

Luther's (1483–1546) lead, many intellectuals, impatient for action, used publications and speaking platforms to move Europe's masses as Erasmus never had. The Erasmians's style of persuasion was replaced by simpler, informal commentaries on theology (the study of God and the Christian religion), the Sacraments, and Church structure, sometimes linked with social and political issues.

Erasmus's eventual response, after an important exchange with Luther in 1524 and 1525, about the role of human will in salvation to which he contributed *De libero arbitrio* (On the Freedom of the Will), was a gradual separation from the theologians who held a different opinion and their wealthy sponsors.

Erasmus died on July 12, 1536. The Catholic Church, which he never left, rejected some of Erasmus's work for its critical attitude and moderation against those who held different beliefs, while opinion based on Protestant, authoritative viewpoints has judged him harshly. But there is a rebirth of interest in, and sympathy for, Erasmus and his belief that patience and logical reasoning must be the controlling factor through conflicting times.

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**Born:** c. 335 B.C.E.

**Greece**

**Died:** c. 270 B.C.E.

**Alexandria, Egypt**

*Greek mathematician*

**T**he Greek mathematician (math expert) Euclid wrote the *Elements*, a thirteen-volume set of textbooks of geometry (the study of points, lines, angles, and surfaces)—the oldest major mathematical work existing in the Western world.

### Unknown background

Almost nothing is known of Euclid personally. It is not even known for certain whether he was really a creative mathematician or was simply good at collecting and editing the work of others. Most of the information about Euclid comes from Proclus (411–485 C.E.), a fifth-century Greek scholar. Some believed Euclid was the son of a Greek man who was born in Tyre and lived in Damascus. His mathematical education may have been obtained from students of Plato (c. 427 B.C.E.–347 B.C.E.) in Athens, Greece, since most of the earlier mathematicians upon whose work the *Elements* is based had studied and taught there.

### The Elements

No earlier writings similar to the *Elements* have survived. One reason is that the *Elements* expanded on all previous writings of this type, so keeping any earlier texts around was thought to be unnecessary. For example, about 600 B.C.E. the Greek mathematician

Thales (c. 625–c. 546 B.C.E.) is said to have discovered a number of theorems (statements that can be demonstrated or proved) that appear in the *Elements*. Early mathematics dealt only with concrete problems, such as determining areas and volumes. By Euclid's time, mathematics had become more of an intellectual occupation for philosophers (thinkers, or seekers of wisdom) rather than for only scientists.

The *Elements* consists of thirteen books. Each book contains a number of theorems, from about ten to one hundred, which follow a series of definitions. The usual elementary course in Euclidean geometry is based on “Book I.” “Book V” is one of the finest works in Greek mathematics, a masterful description of the theory of proportions (the relation of one part to another part or the sum of all parts) originally discovered by Eudoxus. “Book VI” applies the statements of “Book V” to the figures of plane geometry (the study of flat surfaces and the relationships of figures lying within the surfaces). In “Book VII” a prime number is defined as that which is measured by a unit alone (a prime number can be divided only by itself and the number 1). “Book IX” contains Euclid's proof that there are infinitely many prime numbers, which is still used in current algebra textbooks.

The *Elements* were translated into Latin and Arabic, but it was not until the first printed edition, published in 1482, that they became important in European education. The first complete English version was printed in 1570. It was during the most active mathematical period in England, about 1700, that Greek mathematics was studied most closely. Euclid's writings were used by



*Euclid.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

all major mathematicians, including Isaac Newton (1642–1727). The growing importance of the sciences and mathematics in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries helped Euclid's ideas keep their influence in schools and universities throughout the Western (having to do with nations of Europe and America) world.

### ***Euclid's other works***

Some of Euclid's other works are known only because other writers have mentioned them. The book *Data* discusses plane geometry and contains propositions (problems to be demonstrated) in which certain data are



given about a figure and from which other data can be figured out. Euclid's *On Division*, also dealing with plane geometry, is concerned with more general problems of division. A work by Euclid that has survived is *Phaenomena*. This is what today would be called applied mathematics, concerning the geometry of spheres for use in astronomy.

Another surviving work, the *Optics*, corrects the belief held at the time that the sun and other heavenly bodies are actually the size they appear to be to the eye. This work discusses the relationship between what the eye sees of an object and what the object actually is. For example, the eye always sees less than half of a sphere, and as the observer moves closer to the sphere, the part of it that is seen is decreased, although it appears larger.

Another lost work is the *Porisms*. A porism is somewhere between a theorem and a problem; that is, rather than something to be proved or something to be constructed, a porism is concerned with bringing out another feature of something that is already there. To find the center of a circle or to find the greatest common divisor of two numbers are examples of porisms. This work appears to have been more advanced than the *Elements*, and perhaps if it still existed it would give Euclid a higher place in the history of mathematics.

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## EURIPIDES

**Born:** c. 480 B.C.E.

**Salamis, Greece**

**Died:** c. 406 B.C.E.

**Pella, Greece**

*Greek playwright*

Euripides was a Greek playwright (one who writes plays or dramas) whom Aristotle (384–322 B.C.E.) called the most tragic of the Greek poets. He is certainly the most revolutionary Greek tragedian (one who writes plays based on human tragedies and conflicts) known in modern times.

### Euripides's life

Euripides was the son of Mnesarchus. The family owned property on the island of Salamis, and Euripides was twice married (Melito and Choirile) and had three sons (Mnesarchides, Mnesilochus, and Euripides). Euripides was raised in a cultured family, was witness to the rebuilding of the Athenian walls after the Persian Wars (wars fought between the Greek city-states and the Persian Empire during the first half of the fifth century B.C.E.), but above all belonged to the period of the Peloponnesian War

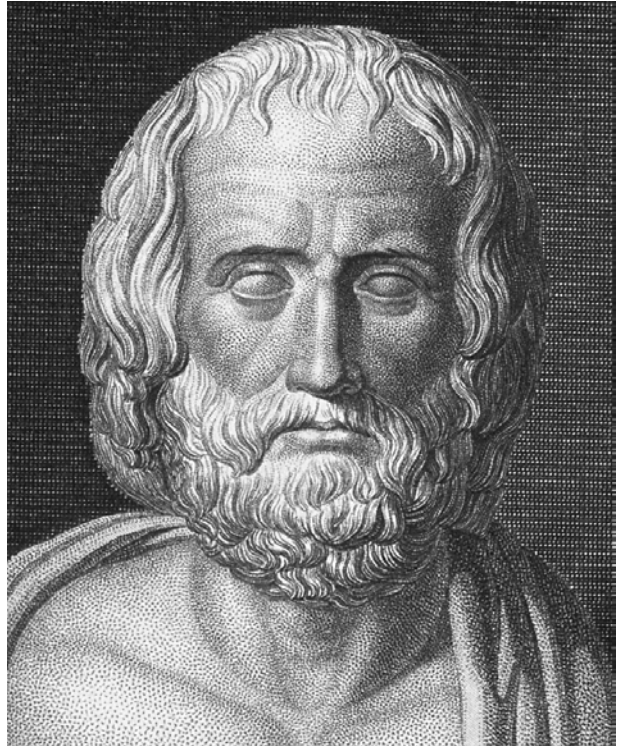
(431–404 B.C.E.; a war fought between two ancient Greek city-states—Athens and Sparta). Euripides has been described as the most intellectual poet of his time. He has been called the philosopher (a person who studies for and seeks knowledge and wisdom) of the theater. In addition to his literary talents, he is said to have been an excellent athlete and painter.

Euripides was well ahead of his times, and though popular, he irritated people in his own day by his sharp criticism (judgment) and won only five dramatic prizes during the course of his career. He is supposed to have owned a library and to have spent a great deal of his time in his cave by the sea in Salamis.

Nothing about Euripides's military or political career is known. Toward the end of his life he stayed briefly in Thessaly (at Magnesia) and at the court of King Archelaus in Macedonia, where he wrote his masterpiece, the *Bacchae*. He died in Macedonia and was buried at Arethusa. The Athenians built him a monument in Athens.

### ***Euripides's style***

Euripides completely refined and popularized Greek tragedy (plays with unhappy endings) and was responsible for making tragedy something experienced by ordinary citizens. At the time of Euripides, the upper classes were the only ones represented on stage as worthy of serious consideration. Though he used the traditional form of the drama, he had some very different things to say, and he said them in a language that was much easier to understand. He used many everyday expressions. He was the first to introduce heroes in rags and on crutches and in tears. He treated slaves, women, and children



*Euripides.*

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as human beings and insisted that nobility was not necessarily a quality of social status.

Euripides was a serious questioner of the values of his day. As a realistic person, he often placed modern ideas and opinions in the mouths of traditional characters. Euripides also wrote about religion, revenge, and all-consuming love. Euripides treated myths sensibly and expected men to use their logical powers. All of his existing plays are concerned with three basic themes: war, women, and religion. He investigated the social, political, religious, and philosophical issues of his day, and he truly loved Athens and sympathized genuinely with suffering humanity.

### His plays

Euripides's existing plays (except the *Cyclops*) can be divided into three basic categories. The true tragedies include *Medea* (431 B.C.E.), *Andromache* (early in the Peloponnesian War), *Heraclidae* (c. 430 B.C.E.), *Hippolytus* (428 B.C.E.), *Hecuba* (c. 425 B.C.E.), *Suppliants* (c. 420–419 B.C.E.), *Heracles* (c. 420–418 B.C.E.), *Trojan Women* (415 B.C.E.), and *Bacchae* (c. 407 B.C.E.). The tragicomedies (plays that include tragedy as well as comedy) include *Alcestis* (438 B.C.E.), *Ion* (c. 418–413 B.C.E.), *Iphigenia at Tauris* (414–412 B.C.E.), and *Helen* (412 B.C.E.). The melodramas (dramas with strong emotion that usually end happily) are *Electra* (c. 415 B.C.E.), *Phoenician Women* (c. 409 B.C.E.), *Orestes* (408 B.C.E.), and *Iphigenia at Aulis* (c. 407 B.C.E.).

The *Alcestis* was presented in 438 B.C.E. and is the earliest of the Euripidean plays that was preserved. A tragicomedy, it has a happy ending and has fascinated critics for countless years.

*Medea* is perhaps Euripides's most famous and most influential play. In *Medea* Euripides demonstrates that “hell hath no fury like a woman scorned,” and he scolds his fellow men for mistreating women and particularly for treating foreign women as less than equal. But perhaps even more brilliantly, Euripides shows that man is both rational (sensible or reasonable) and irrational (without reason), and that the irrational can bring disaster when it gets out of control, and that a woman is defenseless to passions.

*Hippolytus* shows clearly Euripides's concern about claims of religion on the one hand and sexuality on the other. The *Trojan Women* is typical of Euripides's war plays. Euripides's *Electra* beautifully illustrates realism (the

thought based on the belief that reality exists outside of oneself) and rationalism (the belief that reason is the main authority in controlling one's actions and thoughts).

The *Bacchae*, Euripides's masterpiece, is well thought-out and is a very powerful play. In it he is again showing how the irrational, when not recognized and properly restrained, can get out of control and destroy all those around it.

Euripides managed to call his countrymen's attention to the many obvious abuses and wrongs in his own society. He subjected all to a harsh but reasonable examination; however, he was basically tolerant and understanding and fully sympathized with the troubles and suffering of humanity.

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**MEDGAR  
EVERS**

**Born:** July 19, 1925

**Decatur, Mississippi**

**Died: June 12, 1963**

**Jackson, Mississippi**

*African American civil and human rights activist*

**M**edgar Evers, field secretary for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), was one of the most important figures of the African American civil rights movement. He paid for his beliefs with his life, becoming the first major civil rights leader to be assassinated in the 1960s. His death prompted President John F. Kennedy (1917–63) to ask Congress for a national civil rights bill, which President Lyndon Johnson (1908–73) signed into law in 1964.

### ***A course in racism***

Medgar Evers was born on July 19, 1925 in Decatur, Mississippi, the third of four children of a small farm owner. In *The Martyrs: Sixteen Who Gave Their Lives for Racial Justice*, Jack Mendelsohn quoted Evers on his childhood. “I was born in Decatur here in Mississippi, and when we were walking to school in the first grade white kids in their schoolbuses would throw things at us and yell filthy things,” the civil rights leader recollected. “This was a mild start. If you’re a kid in Mississippi this is the elementary course.”

By the time Evers reached adulthood he had, as he put it in Mendelsohn’s book, moved on from this “elementary course” in racism (a dislike or disrespect of someone based on the color of their skin) and “graduated pretty quickly.” In the Mississippi of Evers’s boyhood, African Americans were routinely terrorized by the violence of racist whites. Lynching (the killing of a person by a group of people outside of the law) was common, and discrimina-

tion (treating people differently based on their race) was an everyday fact. However, Evers was fortunate to have an example of strong independence and pride in his own father. James Evers, Medgar’s father, refused to get off the sidewalk to let a white man pass as was customary. Unlike many African Americans in the South, he also owned his own land.

The young Medgar Evers was determined not to cave in to hardship. He walked twelve miles each way to earn his high school diploma and then joined the U.S. Army during World War II (1939–45), a war that involved countries in many parts of the world. He was discharged from the army in 1946.

### ***Joining the NAACP***

After the war Evers returned to Decatur, where he was reunited with his brother Charlie. The young men decided they wanted to vote in the next election. Since the aim of discrimination was to keep power in the hands of the South’s white population, preventing and discouraging African Americans from voting was a major tactic of white racists. When election day came, the Evers brothers found their polling place blocked by an armed crowd of whites, estimated by Evers to be two hundred strong.

Evers and his brother did not vote that day. Instead they joined the NAACP and became active in its ranks. Evers was already busy with NAACP projects when he was a student at Alcorn A&M College in Lorman, Mississippi. He entered college in 1948, majored in business administration, and graduated in 1952. During his senior year he married Myrlie Beasley. After graduation the young couple lived on his earnings as an insurance salesman.



Medgar Evers.

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Evers continued to witness the victims of hate and racism. He saw the terrible living conditions of the rural blacks he visited while working for his company. Then in 1954 he witnessed an attempted lynching during a time of great personal sorrow. His father was dying in the hospital, and while visiting him Evers went to get a breath of air outside. As he later related in *The Martyrs*, "On that very night a Negro had fought with a white man in Union [Mississippi] and a white mob had shot the Negro in the leg. The police brought the Negro to the hospital but the mob was outside . . . armed with pistols and rifles, yelling for the Negro. I walked out into the

middle of it. . . . It seemed that this would never change."

### *Campaigning for civil rights*

Evers soon went to work for the NAACP full time. Within two years he was named to the important position of state field secretary for the organization. Still in his early thirties, he was one of the most well-known NAACP members in his state. With his wife and children, he moved to Jackson, Mississippi, where he worked closely with black church leaders and other civil rights activists. Evers spoke constantly of the need to overcome hatred and promote understanding and equality between the races. It was not a message that everyone in Mississippi wanted to hear.

Evers was featured on a nine-man death list in the deep South as early as 1955. He and his family endured many threats and other violent acts, making them well aware of the danger surrounding Evers because of his activities. Still he persisted in his efforts to end segregation (separating people based solely on their race) in public facilities, schools, and restaurants. He organized voter-registration drives and demonstrations. His days were filled with meetings, economic boycotts (to make a stand against a person or a business by refusing to buy their goods, products, or businesses), marches, prayer services, picket lines, and bailing other demonstrators out of jail.

### *A fallen leader*

On June 12, 1963, President Kennedy made an address to the nation. Kennedy believed that whites standing in the way of civil rights for blacks represented "a moral cri-

sis” and pledged his support to federal action on integration, or ending segregation. That same night, Evers returned home just after midnight from a series of NAACP functions. As he left his car, he was shot in the back. Evers died shortly thereafter at the hospital.

When the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) looked into Evers’s murder, a suspect was uncovered, Byron de la Beckwith (1920–2001), who was an outspoken opponent of integration and a member of a group called the Mississippi’s White Citizens Council. A gun found 150 feet from the site of the shooting had Beckwith’s fingerprint on it. Several witnesses placed Beckwith in Evers’s neighborhood that night. However, he denied shooting Evers and claimed his gun had been stolen days before the incident. Beckwith, too, produced witnesses who swore that he was some sixty miles from Evers’s home on the night of the murder.

Beckwith was tried twice in Mississippi for Evers’s murder during the 1960s, once in 1964 and again the following year. Both trials ended in hung juries. After the second trial, Myrlie Evers took her children and moved to California. However, her strong belief that justice was never served in her husband’s case kept Mrs. Evers involved in the search for new evidence. In 1991, Byron de la Beckwith was arrested a third time on charges of mur-

dering Medgar Evers. He was finally convicted of the crime in 1994.

### ***The Evers legacy***

In some ways, the death of Medgar Evers was a milestone in the hard-fought civil rights war that rocked America in the 1950s and 1960s. While Evers’s assassination foreshadowed the violence to come, it also inspired civil rights leaders and their followers to work for their cause with still more dedication. Above all, it inspired them to work with the courage that Evers himself had shown.

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## GABRIEL FAHRENHEIT

**Born:** May 14, 1686

**Danzig, Germany**

**Died:** September 16, 1736

**The Hague, the Netherlands**

*German instrument maker and glassblower*

**T**he German instrument maker Gabriel Fahrenheit made the first reliable thermometers, and the temperature scale he created is named after him.

### *Early life*

Born in Danzig, Germany, on May 14, 1686, Gabriel Daniel Fahrenheit was one of

Daniel and Concordia Schumann Fahrenheit's five children. His father was a wealthy merchant. Both his parents died on the same day, August 14, 1701, and he was then sent to Amsterdam, the Netherlands, to work for and learn from a shopkeeper. After completing a term of four years there, Fahrenheit became interested in making scientific instruments. Although he lived in Amsterdam most of his life, he traveled widely to observe the work of scientists and makers of instruments in other areas. He spent considerable time in England, where he became a member of the Royal Society (Great Britain's oldest organization of scientists).

### *Creation of thermometers*

Fahrenheit completed his first two thermometers by 1714. They contained alcohol

and agreed exactly in their readings. The scale that was to bear Fahrenheit's name had not yet been made standard, and many different scales were tried before he settled on one. He soon decided to replace the alcohol with mercury and completed a series of investigations based on the work of Danish astronomer Olaus Roemer. In these investigations he determined the boiling point of water and other liquids and studied the expansion (increase in volume) properties of mercury. These experiments led to the discovery that the boiling point of water varies with changes in the pressure of the atmosphere. Fahrenheit also discovered the method of supercooling water—that is, cooling water to below its normal freezing point without it becoming ice.

Taking all of these factors into consideration, Fahrenheit began to doubt the reliability of the freezing and boiling points of water. He finally settled on a temperature scale ranging from 0 to 212. In 1724, announcing his method of making thermometers in the *Philosophical Transactions* of the Royal Society, he described how he used the temperatures of the human body and of a mixture of water, ice, and sea salt to be his high and low measuring points. He set 0 as the temperature of the mixture, 32 as the temperature of water and ice, and 212, a point selected by chance, as the approximate boiling point of water.

#### **Success and new developments**

Fahrenheit's thermometers were very popular. He used mercury successfully because of his method of cleaning it, and he introduced the use of cylinder-shaped bulbs instead of sphere-shaped ones. His detailed

process of making thermometers, however, was not made public for some eighteen years, since he wanted to keep his methods a secret. Among the other instruments he created were a constant-weight hydrometer (an instrument to measure the gravity and strength of a liquid), and a "thermobarometer" for estimating barometric pressure (the pressure of the atmosphere) by determining the boiling point of water.

On September 16, 1736, at fifty years old, Fahrenheit died in the Netherlands. He was buried in the city of The Hague. Fahrenheit never married and continued to be active up to his death. Just before he died, he applied for a patent on a machine that would pump water out of polders (drained land in the Netherlands that lies below sea level).

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**FANNIE  
FARMER**

**Born: March 23, 1857**  
**Boston, Massachusetts**



**Died:** January 15, 1915

**Boston, Massachusetts**

*American cooking expert, author, and educator*

Fannie Farmer was an American authority in the art of cooking and the author of six books about food preparation. She was a determined woman who overcame her physical limitations to achieve success in her field.

### **Early life**

Fannie Merritt Farmer was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on March 23, 1857. She was the eldest of four daughters of J. Franklin Farmer, a master printer, and Mary Watson Merritt Farmer. The Farmers moved to Medford, Massachusetts, when Fannie was a child. Though they were not wealthy, the Farmers strongly believed that their daughter should receive a solid education. Fannie's parents had hopes of sending her to college, but after high school graduation she suffered a stroke that left her paralyzed. Her doctor discouraged all thoughts of further schooling. Fannie was unable to get out of bed for months and remained an invalid for years. She did, however, learn to use her legs again. She was eventually able to walk, but always retained a limp.

### **Education and career**

While at home, Farmer helped around the house but she was not able to help her family financially until she was in her mid-twenties. By that time she was well enough to take a job with the Shaw family. It was here that she showed a strong interest in cooking. By the time Fannie had reached thirty-one years of age, her physical condition had

markedly improved. Her parents and the Shaw family advised her to seek schooling that would develop and refine her knowledge and abilities in cooking.

Farmer then enrolled in the Boston Cooking School, where her performance was outstanding. Because of the excellence of her work, upon graduation in 1889 she was invited to serve as assistant director of the school under Carrie M. Dearborn. Farmer began to understand the association between eating and good health. Her inquiring mind led her into further studies, including a summer course at the Harvard Medical School.

After Dearborn's death in 1891, Farmer was appointed director of the school. While there she published her impressive, highly significant Boston Cooking School Cookbook (1896), of which twenty-one editions were printed before her death. It has remained a standard work. She served as director of the school for eleven years. After her resignation in 1902, she established her own school and named it Miss Farmer's School of Cookery. It was decidedly creative and inventive, emphasizing the practice of cooking instead of theory. Its program was designed to educate housewives rather than to prepare teachers. The school also developed cooking equipment for the sick and the physically disabled. Farmer became a highly respected authority in her field, and she was invited to deliver lectures to nurses, women's clubs, and even the Harvard Medical School.

One of Farmer's major contributions was teaching cooks to carefully follow recipes. She pioneered the use of standard level measurement in cooking. Farmer, her school, and her cookbooks were extremely popular. She received favorable newspaper



Fannie Farmer.

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coverage in many American cities, and her influence was widespread. The well-attended weekly lectures at the school were tributes to the value of the work she and her assistants were doing. She also wrote a popular cooking column, which ran for nearly ten years in the *Woman's Home Companion*, a national magazine.

Farmer was a woman of unusual motivation, intelligence, and courage. Though she suffered another paralytic stroke later in her life, she continued lecturing. In fact, ten days before her death in 1915, she delivered a lecture from a wheelchair. Fannie Farmer died on January 15, 1915.

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## LOUIS FARRAKHAN

**Born:** May 11, 1933

**New York, New York**

*African American civil rights activist, religious leader, and minister*

Louis Farrakhan is a leader of the Nation of Islam, a religious group that is more popularly known as the Black Muslims. Beginning in the 1970s he emerged as a spokesman for Black Nationalism, arguing that African Americans should work to improve themselves rather than expect whites to help them. He was frequently criticized for mixing his positive messages with remarks that some felt showed prejudice (dislike of people based on their race or religion) toward white and Jewish people.

### Early years

Louis Farrakhan was born Louis Eugene Walcott on May 11, 1933, the son of Percival Clark and Mae Manning Clark. His father was a Jamaican man who later deserted his

family, and his mother was a domestic worker who had come to the United States from the West Indies. Farrakhan's family moved to Boston, Massachusetts, when he was three. Farrakhan had a talent for music and began taking violin lessons at the age of five. In high school he was an honor student, a good track athlete, and a member of the choir in the local Episcopal church. After two years of college he began a career as a professional violinist and singer who used such stage names as "The Charmer."

In 1955 Farrakhan was taken by a friend to hear a speech by Elijah Muhammad (1897–1975), the leader of the Nation of Islam. Muhammad was the second head of the movement, having attained his position following the disappearance of founder W. D. Fard in 1934. Under Muhammad the movement had grown to include hundreds of thousands of members with a large network of farms, restaurants, stores, and schools. Muhammad spoke out against "white devils" and promised that one day God would restore African Americans, who were regarded by the Nation of Islam as the original humans, to their rightful position as leaders of the world. Muhammad forbid his followers to smoke, drink, fight, eat pork, and engage in destructive behavior. Followers were also commanded to say prayers, attend religious services regularly, improve their education, and serve the movement. Farrakhan joined soon after hearing Muhammad speak. He took the name Louis X (a common Nation of Islam practice indicating that one's identity had been stolen during slavery) and later Louis Farrakhan.



*Louis Farrakhan.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

### ***Moving up and breaking away***

Farrakhan's ability and dedication were noticed by Muhammad, who appointed him minister of the Boston mosque (a building used by Muslims for public worship). After the death of Malcolm X (1925–1965) he was appointed leader of the important Harlem Temple No. 7 and official spokesperson for Elijah Muhammad. He was also given the important task of introducing Muhammad at rallies on Savior's Day, a major Nation of Islam holiday celebrating Fard's birthday.

Elijah Muhammad died in 1975 and his son Wallace Muhammad (1933–), who was much quieter and more moderate than his

father, became leader of the Nation of Islam. At Wallace Muhammad's invitation Farrakhan moved to Chicago, Illinois, to work in the movement's headquarters. Soon Wallace Muhammad began to pursue a program of moderation for the movement. He abandoned its antiwhite stance—even letting whites join—and built bridges to the larger world from the Islamic community. Farrakhan became a major voice of a group within the movement made up of members who disagreed with the move toward moderation. He resigned from the movement in 1978 and organized a new Nation of Islam that closely resembled Elijah Muhammad's group, with dress and behavior codes and Muslim institutions and businesses. The racial theories and antiwhite sentiment of the Muhammad days were stressed once again. Farrakhan opened mosques in cities across America and reached out to the wider African American community through publications and a radio show.

### *Subject of criticism*

Farrakhan's Nation of Islam, which in 1983 was estimated to have between five to ten thousand members, remained little known until March 1984, when controversy (a discussion marked by the expression of opposing views) suddenly erupted over his association with presidential candidate Jesse Jackson (1941–). Farrakhan, who had earlier advised his followers to avoid political involvements, had thrown his support behind Jackson, even providing bodyguards for the candidate. Farrakhan had registered to vote for the first time and urged his followers to do the same. Jackson had returned the favor by appearing as the featured speaker at the Muslim Savior's Day rally in February 1984.

In March, however, Farrakhan called Milton Coleman, an African American reporter for the *Washington Post*, a traitor after Coleman disclosed that Jackson had made offensive remarks about Jewish people while speaking with campaign assistants. In a speech, Farrakhan said of Coleman, "One day soon we will punish you with death." He later denied that he was threatening Coleman's life. Farrakhan's role in Jackson's campaign was greatly reduced after it became known that Farrakhan had referred to Judaism as a "gutter religion" and described Adolf Hitler (1889–1945), the German leader who caused the deaths of millions of Jewish people during World War II (1939–45), as "a very great man."

Criticism of Farrakhan increased when it was uncovered that during the 1980s he had visited Libya and received a \$5 million interest-free loan from Libyan head of state Mu'ammar al-Qadhafi (1942–) to help build Muslim institutions and businesses. Qadhafi was known to have provided training and money for terrorist acts. Farrakhan explained that he sought to raise hundreds of millions of dollars for African American self-improvement programs from all of the groups, including Arabs, that had been involved in the slave trade and the destruction of African culture.

### *Still a force*

After the publicity he received during the 1984 presidential campaign, Farrakhan continued his busy public speaking schedule and continued to have an influence on African Americans far beyond the membership of his own movement. He and his wife, Betsy, have nine children and live in a mainly

white neighborhood in Chicago. In 1993, on his sixtieth birthday, Farrakhan performed a violin concert on Chicago's South Side in an attempt to better his image. The concert was held at a temple in hopes that tensions between Farrakhan and the Jewish community could be mended. Farrakhan also opened a \$5 million restaurant, the Salaam Restaurant and Bakery, in March 1995 with funds collected from followers and the sale of the *Final Call*, an Islamic newspaper.

The loyalty of Farrakhan's followers was most evident in October 1995 in Washington, D.C. Farrakhan had urged at least one million African American men to travel to the nation's capital as a show of strength for their community. The Million Man March, as it was called, was designed to create solidarity (a feeling of unity, or oneness) among members of the African American community and to help bridge a gap between whites and African Americans. The march surprised many, not only because of the large number of participants but because few thought that Farrakhan could promote and pull off a nonviolent protest. The Million Man March was followed up in 2000 by the Million Family March, celebrating family and unity and stressing the need for education and the importance of voting.

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## WILLIAM FAULKNER

**Born:** September 25, 1897

**New Albany, Mississippi**

**Died:** July 6, 1962

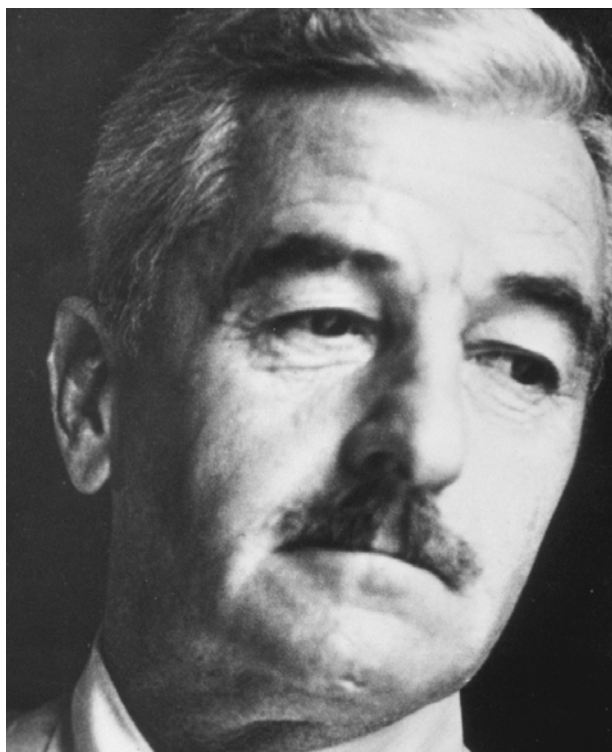
**Byhalia, Mississippi**

*American author*

William Faulkner, a major American twentieth-century author, wrote historical novels portraying the decline and decay of the upper crust of Southern society. The imaginative power and psychological depth of his work ranks him as one of America's greatest novelists. He also received the 1949 Nobel Prize for Literature.

### Youth and experience

William Cuthbert Falkner (as the family spelled its name) was born on September 25, 1897, in New Albany, Mississippi. He grew up in Oxford, Mississippi, the oldest of four brothers. Both parents came from wealthy families reduced to poverty by the Civil War (1861–65; a war fought between the Northern and Southern states of the United States). A great-grandfather, Colonel William Falkner, had written *The White Rose of Memphis*, a popular novel of the 1880s. William was named in honor of his great-grandfather. William's father owned a hardware store and



William Faulkner.

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livery stable (a place where animals and vehicles are kept and rented) in Oxford and later became business manager of the state university. William did not attend public school consistently after the fifth grade; he left high school prior to graduation in order to work in his grandfather's bank. William never earned his high school diploma despite being an avid reader and a lover of poetry.

In 1918, after the U.S. Army rejected him for being underweight and too short (5 feet 5 inches), Faulkner enlisted in the Canadian Air Force. During his brief service in World War I (1914–18; a war that involved most countries in Europe as well as many other nations in the

world, and in which the United States participated from 1917–18), he suffered a leg injury in a plane accident. In 1918 he left the air force and returned home to Oxford.

In 1919 Faulkner enrolled at the University of Mississippi as a special student, but left the next year for New York City. After several odd jobs in New York he left and again returned to Mississippi, where he became postmaster at the Mississippi University Station. He was fired in 1924 for reading on the job. In 1925 he and a friend made a walking tour of Europe, returning home in 1926.

During the years 1926 to 1930 Faulkner published a series of novels, none commercially successful. But in 1931 the success of *Sanctuary* freed him of financial worries. He went to Hollywood for a year as a scriptwriter and an adviser.

It was not until after World War II (1939–45; a war in which France, Great Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union, and China fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan) that Faulkner received critical acclaim. The turning point for Faulkner's reputation came in 1946, when Malcolm Cowley published the influential *The Portable Faulkner* (at this time all of Faulkner's books were out of print). The rapid and widespread praise for Faulkner's work was recognized in a 1949 Nobel Prize for Literature.

Faulkner had married Estelle Oldham, his childhood sweetheart, in 1929, and they lived together in Oxford until his death. He was a quiet, dashing, courteous man, mustachioed and sharp-eyed. He constantly refused the role of celebrity: he permitted no prying into his private life and rarely granted interviews. William Faulkner died on July 6,

1962, in a hospital in Byhalia, Mississippi. He was sixty-four years of age.

### **Poetry and short stories**

During the early 1920s Faulkner wrote poetry and fiction. In the volume of verse *The Marble Faun* (1922), a printer's error allegedly introduced the "u" into the author's name, which he decided to retain. His friend, Philip Stone, supplied money for another book of poems, *The Green Bough* (1933).

Faulkner is considered a fine writer of the short story, and some of his stories, such as "A Rose for Emily," are widely anthologized (put into a collection of literature). His collections—*These Thirteen* (1931), *Doctor Martino and Other Stories* (1934), *Go Down, Moses and Other Stories* (1942), and *Knight's Gambit* (1949)—deal with themes similar to those in his novels and include many of the same characters.

### **Early novels**

*Soldiers' Pay* (1926) and *Mosquitoes* (1927) precede *Sartoris* (1927), Faulkner's first important work, in which he begins his Yoknapatawpha saga. This saga, Faulkner's imaginative re-creation of the tragedy of the American South, is written so that each novel works with the others to clarify and redefine the characters. The novel introduces families that reappear in many of Faulkner's novels and stories: the Sartoris and Compson families, representing the land-owning, aristocratic Old South; and the Snopes clan, representing the ruthless, commercial New South.

### **The Sound and the Fury**

The book generally regarded as Faulkner's masterpiece, *The Sound and the Fury* (1929), is

written in a style that differs from most novels of the time. It uses a stream-of-consciousness method (where the author lets his thoughts flow freely), creating a different manner of thought in each of its four sections. The novel records the breakdown of the Compson family, which serves to suggest a breakdown of the southern ways of the past. Each section takes place in a single day; three sections are set in 1928 and one in 1910. The difficulties begin with the fact that the section set in 1910 is placed second in the book, while the other three set in 1928 are not in the order in which they occur during their three-day span.

The Benjy section (April 7, 1928) is the most difficult section to read. Because the mentally impaired Benjy lives in a state where things rarely change, his report is purely physical, and the reader must figure out his own order of time. Faulkner gives two aids, however: the device of signaling time shifts by alternating the typeface between bold and italic, and the different people attending Benjy.

Out of Benjy's jumbled report comes background information for the novel. He is thirty-three years old, and in the constant care of an African American youth named Luster. Benjy is troubled by the absence of his sister, Candace, though she has been out of the household for eighteen years. The oldest son, Quentin, was sent to Harvard, where he committed suicide. Mrs. Compson is a self-pitying woman; Mr. Compson is a drunkard; Uncle Maury is a womanizer; Candace is lacking in morals and, in turn, her daughter, confusingly called Quentin (after her dead uncle), is also morally loose.

Ironically, the most sensitive and intelligent Compson, Quentin (whose day in the novel is June 1, 1910), shares Benjy's obses-

sion about their sister. Candace and the past dominate Quentin's section, which is set in Boston on the day he commits suicide. He is oppressed by the knowledge that the pregnant Candace is to be married off to a northern banker. The upcoming marriage is the reason for his suicidal state.

Jason, the third Compson brother, whose day in the novel is April 6, 1928, is one of the great comic villains of literature. He has an irrational, jealous hatred of Candace. Now head of the family, he complains of his responsibilities as guardian of Candace's daughter, Quentin, while systematically stealing the money Candace sends for her care. Jason is greedy, cunning, and concerned only with money and possessions. What makes him humorous is his self-pity. Jason's lack of soul is evident in all of his habits. He leaves no mark on anything and lives totally in the present, which serves to represent the New South.

The novel's final section, the only one told in the third person, gives the point of view of the sensible old black servant, Dilsey (her day is April 8, 1928). As with other Faulkner African American characters, her presence is chiefly practical: her good sense and solidity point at the selfishness and self-absorption of the white characters. In this section Jason meets with an overwhelming defeat. The novel's chief assumption is that the Southern way of life is doomed.

#### Later works

As *I Lay Dying* (1930) is an absurd epic that uses the multiple stream-of-consciousness method to tell the ridiculous, humorous story of a family of poor whites intent on fulfilling the mother's deathbed request for burial. The story in *Light in August* (1932) takes

place in a single day. Although complicated by a subplot, *Light in August* generates enormous power and probably ranks second among Faulkner's books.

Faulkner's creativity declined after 1935. Though occasionally interesting and at times brilliant, his work tended to be increasingly repetitious.

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## DIANNE FEINSTEIN

**Born:** June 22, 1933

**San Francisco, California**

*American politician, mayor, and senator*

**D**ianne Feinstein was elected San Francisco's first female mayor in 1979 and became one of the



nation's most visible and recognized leaders. In 1992, when she was elected to the Senate, she and Barbara Boxer became the first female senators from California.

### ***Background and early career***

Dianne Feinstein was born in San Francisco, California, on June 22, 1933, to a Jewish physician father, Leon Goldman, and a Catholic Russian-American mother, Betty Rosenberg Goldman. She attended a Roman Catholic school and a Jewish temple (a place for religious worship) during her youth, which resulted in her deep respect for different religions. Feinstein was introduced to politics by an uncle who began taking her to San Francisco Board of Supervisors (city council) meetings when she was sixteen. She recalled later that this was the main factor in her decision to pursue a career in public service. After graduating from San Francisco's Sacred Heart High School, she attended Stanford University. She studied history and political science and was also active in student government. She received her bachelor's degree in 1955.

In 1956 Feinstein married Jack Berman, a man who would eventually become a San Francisco superior court judge. The couple had one daughter. Combining marriage and family with a career, Feinstein was employed by a public affairs group that was interested in criminal justice. She went on to work for California's Industrial Welfare Commission and was appointed in 1962 to a four-year term on the state's Women's Board of Paroles. When her first marriage ended in divorce, she withdrew from public life for a time but came back as a member of San Francisco's Mayor's Commission on Crime. She then married Bertram Feinstein, a noted surgeon.



*Dianne Feinstein.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

Feinstein won election to San Francisco's Board of Supervisors in 1969 and served on the board through the 1970s. She also ran for mayor twice, losing to Joseph Alioto (c. 1917–1998) in 1971 and finishing a poor third to George Moscone (1929–1978) in the 1975 election. She was an early and firm supporter of presidential candidate Jimmy Carter (1924–). When he entered the White House, she tried without success to obtain a cabinet post in Washington, D.C. Turned down in her attempt for higher office, weakened by illness from foreign travel, and discouraged by the deaths of her father and her second husband, Feinstein told writer Jerome Brondfield: "I

decided I would not again be a candidate—for anything.”

### *Unexpected responsibility*

Feinstein then decided to make the announcement that her political career was over. However, half an hour before the press conference on November 27, 1978, where she planned to make her decision public, a former supervisor, Dan White, fatally shot Mayor George Moscone (1929–1978) and Supervisor Harvey Milk (1930–1978). These murders forced Feinstein into the position of acting mayor. A month later she was selected to serve out the balance of Moscone’s term. As mayor, Feinstein attempted to calm the political unrest and violence, balance the demands of different groups, and help the city recover from the tragic events that had put her in office.

Feinstein was elected to a full four-year term as mayor beginning in 1979. During her early years on the job she tried to please all the different groups in the San Francisco community. She took an interest in police staffing and policies and succeeded in reducing crime rates. The biggest challenge that she faced was fiscal (involving money)—the problem of balancing the budget in the face of cutbacks in state and federal spending for cities. Making use of the knowledge of the high-powered business and labor leaders on her Fiscal Advisory Committee, she brought the city budget under control, introduced improved management policies, and promoted downtown development and expansion. Feinstein was a colorful and energetic mayor. She once appeared at a ribbon-cutting ceremony for a construction project dressed in an old-fashioned, black wool, knee-length

bathing suit—which she wore after losing a bet with the contractor. At a dinner at which she was guest of honor, she applied the Heimlich maneuver to save a guest from choking on a piece of meat.

Although her career as mayor was marked by many successes, Feinstein occasionally stumbled. When she pushed through a law banning handguns, some voters attempted a recall (a process in which people vote to remove an elected official from office). Many members of the community were also angered by her veto (rejection) of a measure that would have extended medical and welfare benefits to partners in same-sex couples and to live-in companions of unmarried city employees. Although the recall movement gathered many signatures, Mayor Feinstein survived the challenge by receiving an 83-percent-favorable vote in April 1983. She went on to win her second and last full term in the November 1983 election (according to a city rule, mayors were limited to two terms). In 1984 San Francisco hosted the Democratic National Convention, which many of the mayor’s backers hoped might lead to her nomination for the vice presidency, but she was not chosen.

### *New challenges*

In 1990 Feinstein ran for governor of California against Republican candidate Pete Wilson (1933–). Although she ran a tough campaign that was well funded by her third husband, investment banker Richard Blum, she lost to Wilson by a narrow margin. She immediately changed her focus and in early 1991 announced her intention to run for Wilson’s former Senate seat in the 1992 election. Along with fellow Democrat Barbara

Boxer (1940–), Feinstein was elected to the Senate in 1992; the two became the first women senators ever elected in California. Their election was part of a new women's revolution, since prior to January 1993 only fifteen women had ever served in the Senate. There had never been more than two serving at any given time. After her reelection in 1996, Feinstein shared the floor with eight fellow women senators, all representing a wide range of viewpoints. Of the change, Senator Tom Harkin (1939–) said, "Just by being on the Senate floor, they've changed the male mindset."

In the Senate, Feinstein took a firm stand on a range of issues. She was outspoken against the decision of President Bill Clinton (1946–) to make Mexico a U.S. ally in the fight against illegal drugs. In foreign affairs, she argued that China should be granted "most favored nation" standing in trade (meaning that China would be guaranteed the best possible terms, including the lowest import taxes, when trading with the United States). She also disagreed with the leasing of a former Navy base to China's government-owned shipping company. Concerning the protection of privacy rights in the United States, she proposed a law in 1998 to limit the access of paparazzi (photographers who follow famous people around in attempt to take pictures of them for sale to publications) in California.

In 2000 Feinstein received a special recognition award from the Susan G. Komen Breast Cancer Foundation for her work in support of breast cancer research and education. At the time, she was a member of the Senate Cancer Coalition and the National Dialogue on Cancer. She also supported a

stamp to raise money specifically for breast cancer research.

Feinstein continues to be an active senator who supports the many issues that have become important to her during her decades-long career in public service. She has introduced bills to make the cloning (scientific copying) of another human being a crime, to allow local school districts to use Department of Education funding to build new and smaller schools, and to make it more difficult for terrorists to obtain weapons from the United States.

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## ENRICO FERMI

**Born:** September 29, 1901

Rome, Italy

**Died:** November 29, 1954

Chicago, Illinois

*Italian-born American physicist and scientist*

**T**he Italian American physicist (specialist in the relationship between matter and energy) Enrico Fermi developed the first nuclear (using atomic energy) chain reaction, which helped lead to the creation of the atomic bomb.

### *Early years*

Enrico Fermi was born on September 29, 1901, in Rome, Italy, the third child of Alberto and Ida de Gattis Fermi. His father was an inspector in the Ministry of Railroads, and his mother was a schoolteacher. At about the age of ten his interest in mathematics and physics awakened. A friend of his father's, the engineer Adolfo Amidei, recognized Fermi's intellectual abilities and guided his mathematical and physical studies by loaning him books during his teenage years.

By the time Fermi received his doctorate degree from the University of Pisa, in Italy, in 1922, he had already written several papers on electrodynamics (a branch of physics dealing with the relationships between electric currents and magnets). Fermi went on to study at the University of Göttingen in Germany for eight months. In 1924, Fermi went to study at the University of Leiden, in Holland.

### *Fermi statistics*

Late in 1924, after leaving Leiden, Fermi went to the University of Florence, Italy, where he taught mathematical physics and theories of mechanics (the study of forces and their effect on matter). In 1926 he published his first major discovery, what became known as Fermi-Dirac statistics. He had come up with a way to determine the properties and

behavior of certain particles that obey (conform to) Wolfgang Pauli's exclusion principle. (Pauli's principle holds that no two particles have the same position and the same velocity, or speed.) These obeying particles are now known as fermions.

Fermi's discovery came directly from his own studies. These studies began in 1923 but ran into problems because Pauli's idea was not then known. Fermi saw immediately that all particles (fermions) obeying Pauli's not-yet-proposed exclusion principle would behave in a certain way. This discovery led to an understanding of certain features of gas theory and of how metals conduct electricity, among other things. It also became the foundation of Fermi's widely used 1927 model of the atom.

### *Theory of beta decay*

The years between 1926 and 1938 are considered Fermi's "golden age." He accepted the chair of theoretical physics (existing in theory only) at the University of Rome in 1926 and three years later became one of the first thirty members (and only physicist) to be elected to the Royal Academy of Italy. In 1928 he married Laura Capon; they had two children.

Fermi's most famous work of this period was his 1933 theory of nuclear beta decay. In beta decay a particle (beta particle), known to be identical to an electron in that it is said to have a "negative" electric charge, is given off from the nucleus (core) of an atom. This increases the atomic number (the number of protons, or particles with "positive" electric charges, minus the number of electrons) of the nucleus by one unit. Fermi worked out a detailed theory of beta decay based on the idea that a neutron (a particle with no electric

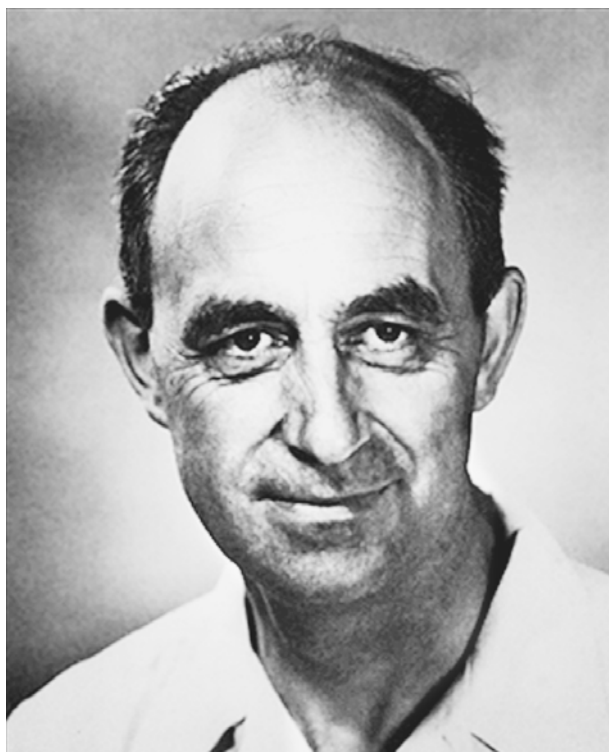
charge) in the nucleus “decays,” or changes, into three particles: a proton, an electron (beta particle), and a neutrino. Actually, the neutrino (a particle without mass or electric charge) was not found in experiments until the 1950s.

### *Slow neutrons*

In the late 1920s Fermi came up with a source of neutrons with which to experiment and determine whether neutrons could cause radioactivity (a process by which the atoms of an element give off particles of matter and harmful rays of energy). Fermi constructed a machine similar to a Geiger counter (a device for measuring radioactivity) and started bombarding different elements with neutrons. He had no success until he detected a weak radioactivity while subjecting fluorium to the treatment. This key date was March 21, 1934. By summer 1934 Fermi and his coworkers had tested many substances and detected a slight radioactivity in some.

Fermi and his team then found that the level of radioactivity created in a substance was increased if a filter made of paraffin (a waxy substance) was placed in the path of the neutrons bombarding the substance. Fermi's idea was that in passing through the paraffin (a compound containing a large amount of hydrogen), the speed of the neutrons was reduced by contact with the hydrogen atoms, and these very slow neutrons caused a much higher radioactivity in substances than fast neutrons did. Slow neutrons produce one kind of reaction, fast neutrons another. The discovery of the properties of slow neutrons was the key discovery in neutron physics.

By 1937 Fermi's wife and their children became concerned by the changing political



*Enrico Fermi.*

atmosphere in Italy. In December 1938 the Fermi family went to Stockholm, Sweden, for the presentation of the Nobel Prize in physics to Fermi. He and his family then left for the United States, arriving in New York in January 1939, where Fermi accepted a position at Columbia University.

### *Atomic age*

With the assistance of fellow physicist Herbert L. Anderson, Fermi produced a beam of neutrons at Columbia, with which he proved that the fission (the splitting of an atom into two roughly equal parts) of uranium was possible. By mid-1939 there was evidence that a man-made nuclear chain

reaction might be possible. (The goal was to get at least one of the neutrons released in a fission reaction to cause another fission, with the process repeating over and over. This would lead to the release of a large amount of energy very quickly.) The military became very interested, and Fermi was asked to direct the research on the idea. He and other physicists moved to the University of Chicago in early 1942; by October, Fermi was confident that he knew how to get the job done, and the project (the “Manhattan Project”) was under way. Construction began in November, and on December 2 Fermi directed the operation of the first self-sustaining chain reaction created by man. It lasted forty minutes and created power equal to one-half watt, enough to activate a penlight. It was the opening of the Atomic Age.

As a result of Fermi’s experiment, huge national laboratories were constructed, one of which, Los Alamos, had immediate responsibility for the construction of the nuclear bomb. In September 1944 Fermi was brought in from Chicago for the final important stages in the construction of the bomb. By early 1945 the project had proceeded to the point where it was time to explode the deadly weapon. The test, which had the code name “Project Trinity,” was successfully carried out in July 1945, in the desert in southern New Mexico.

### ***Last years***

In December 1945 Fermi became professor of physics and a member of the Institute for Nuclear Studies (now the Enrico Fermi Institute) at the University of Chicago. During this period his reading and range of interests decreased considerably. For a few years

he continued to work in nuclear physics. Around 1949 his interest shifted to high-energy (particle) physics. Enrico Fermi died in Chicago, Illinois, on November 29, 1954.

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## GERALDINE FERRARO

**Born:** August 26, 1935

**Newburgh, New York**

*American politician and congresswoman*

Sixty-four years after American women won the right to vote, Geraldine Ferraro became the first woman candidate for the vice presidency of a major political party. She had previously served three terms in the U.S. House of Representatives.

### *Early life and education*

Geraldine Ferraro was born on August 26, 1935, the third child of Dominick and Antonetta Ferraro. Dominick Ferraro was an Italian immigrant who operated a nightclub in Newburgh, a small city north of New York City known to be wide open to organized crime. When Ferraro was eight years old, her father was arrested and charged with operating an illegal gambling operation. He died of a heart attack the day he was to appear for trial. After her father's death, the Ferraro family moved, first to the Bronx, and then to a working-class neighborhood in Queens. Here, Antonetta Ferraro worked in the garment industry to support herself and her children.

Ferraro was an excellent student, skipping from the sixth to the eighth grade and graduating from high school at age sixteen. She won a full scholarship to Marymount Manhattan College, where she became the editor of the school newspaper. While still attending Marymount, she also took education courses at Hunter College. In this way she prepared herself to teach English in the New York City public school system after she graduated from college. While teaching, Ferraro attended Fordham University's evening law classes. She received her law degree in 1960. The week she passed the bar exam she married John Zaccaro (1935–), but she kept her maiden name in honor of her mother.

### *Attorney, congresswoman, Democrat*

From 1961 to 1974 Ferraro practiced law, had three children, and worked in her husband's real estate business. In 1974, with her youngest child in second grade, she agreed to serve as an assistant district attor-



*Geraldine Ferraro.*

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ney in Queens County. While in this post she created two special units, the Special Victims Bureau and the Confidential Unit. As chief of these units, Ferraro specialized in cases involving sex crimes, crimes against the elderly, family violence, and child abuse. From 1974 to 1978 she also served on the Advisory Council for the Housing Court of New York City and as president of the Queens County Women's Bar Association.

In 1978 Ferraro decided to run for Congress. She spent more money on her campaign than her opponents in the Democratic primary race and won. Ferraro's opponent in the general election was a conservative

Republican and she chose to wage a campaign stressing law and order. Her slogan, "Finally, a Tough Democrat," appealed to voters, and she won the election. Ferraro easily won reelection in 1980 and 1982. She kept conservatives (in favor of preserving tradition and gradual change) happy by supporting things such as tax breaks for parents of children attending private schools, but for the most part she followed a more liberal course. For example, she spent a great deal of time on issues affecting the rights of women.

In 1982 Ferraro was appointed to the House Budget Committee, which helps plan national spending. She also served as a member of the House Committee on Public Works and Transportation. Coming from a district with two major airports nearby, Ferraro spoke out in favor of improved air safety and noise control. As a member of the Select Committee on Aging she worked to fight crimes against the elderly and to improve health care and create senior citizen centers. As a member of the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues (a group of congresspeople concerned with issues involving women), Ferraro helped lead the successful battle for passage of the Economic Equity Act, which ended discrimination (unequal treatment) against women in the awarding of salaries and pensions. She was the author of those sections of the Equity Act dealing with private pension reform and increasing retirement savings options for the elderly.

As Ferraro continued to be active in Democratic Party affairs, she also worked hard to achieve national recognition and to correct any impression that she lacked foreign policy experience and skill. In 1983 she

traveled to Central America and to the Middle East. As nomination time approached for the 1984 presidential election, she talked frequently about these trips and about her other international experience. After an exhausting series of interviews, Geraldine Ferraro was chosen by Democratic presidential nominee Walter F. Mondale (1928–) as his running mate.

### *The 1984 campaign*

As a vice presidential candidate, it was thought that Ferraro would greatly benefit Mondale's presidential campaign. Democrats hoped that Ferraro would help take advantage of the gender gap—that is, the clear difference in voting patterns between men and women that occurred in the 1970s and 1980s, with women voting in greater numbers than men and voting for Democratic candidates and peace issues more than men. Ferraro was also appealing as a candidate from a strong working-class and ethnic background and district. Democratic Party leaders considered it very important for Mondale to win among such voters.

The popularity of President Ronald Reagan (1911–) with the voters, however, resulted in a solid reelection victory. Mondale and Ferraro received only 41 percent of the popular vote and thirteen electoral votes (from Minnesota and the District of Columbia). Mondale was hurt most by his plan to raise taxes and his unclearly defined economic program. Ferraro's main problem as a candidate was the investigation of her husband John Zaccaro's real estate business and tax records. The gender gap had not made the difference that the Democrats had hoped for.



### *Keeping the liberal faith*

After Ferraro's term as a congresswoman ended in January 1985, she wrote a book about the vice presidential campaign. For some time, she chose to stay out of politics. In 1986, she passed up the opportunity to challenge Alphonse D'Amato (1937–), the Republican senator from New York. In 1990 Ferraro campaigned aggressively on behalf of female Democratic candidates in New York. She launched her own political comeback in 1992, when she entered the New York Democratic primary as a candidate for the United States Senate. Competing against three other candidates in the primary, Ferraro faced a tough battle and wound up finishing second, fewer than ten thousand votes behind Elizabeth Holtzman (1941–), who was defeated in the general election.

Geraldine Ferraro continues to speak out for liberal policies. In 1993 she published a book demanding more power for women. Beginning in 1996 she appeared every other week on "Crossfire," a political talk show on the Cable News Network (CNN). Occupying the chair opposite former chief of staff John Sununu (1939–), she continued to call for increased government spending and more federal programs on behalf of those she considers "underprivileged." Ferraro declared her political career at an end in 1998 when she lost the Democratic Senate primary race in New York.

Ferraro continues to support women's interests and other social issues. She has served as the copresident of G&L Strategies, a company that advises other businesses and organizations about issues involving race and gender. In 2001 Ferraro made an announcement that she had been diagnosed with an

often-fatal form of blood cancer in 1998. She then began to use her illness as a way to educate the public about cancer and increase funding for research to fight the disease. According to Ferraro, "I will help raise awareness. I will help raise money. I will nudge people I know who could make a difference as far as research is concerned. I will beg people to go out and get themselves checked."

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## BOBBY FISCHER

**Born:** March 9, 1943

**Chicago, Illinois**

*American chess player*

An eight-time United States chess champion, Bobby Fischer helped win over a new generation of chess fans with his famous 1972 victory over Boris Spassky (1937–). Fischer, a known recluse (a person who prefers to live shut out from the rest of the world), often receives criticism for his anti-Semitic and anti-American views.

### *Early years*

Bobby Fischer was born in Chicago, Illinois, on March 9, 1943. His father was a physicist (scientist who studies matter and energy), and his mother, Regina Fischer, worked as a teacher and a nurse. His parents divorced when he was two years old, and he moved to Brooklyn, New York, with his mother and older sister in 1948. Fischer began playing chess at age six, when his sister bought a set and they both learned how to play. By age eight Fischer was competing and receiving lessons at the Brooklyn Chess Club.

### *Chess success*

Fischer rose quickly through the junior ranks of chess players, and at age thirteen he won the United States Junior Championship, the youngest player to date to have taken the title. Competing against adults, Fischer won the United States Open Championship at age fourteen. He dropped out of Erasmus High School in Brooklyn at age sixteen to concentrate on chess. By the next year he became a challenger for the world title and the youngest player ever to receive the title of international grand master. But Fischer was often uncooperative and badly behaved. He would cancel out of matches unexpectedly, and he held grudges that lasted for years. He withdrew from international competition for five years during the 1960s.

By 1970 Fischer had made a comeback and had built up enough tournament credits to take on the current world champion, the Russian Boris Spassky. In 1972 the arrangements were made for the match to be held at Reykjavik, Iceland, and chess fans were excited about this historic challenge. As the event drew near, though, Fischer continued to behave so oddly that many worried he might not show up for the match. Even after his last-minute arrival, Fischer complained constantly and insulted the country and its people. Still, Fischer beat Spassky and became world champion.

### *Oddball beliefs*

Fischer's life after that historic match was marked by a period of nearly twenty years during which few heard from him. He lost the world title after refusing to accept the challenge of Anatoly Karpov in 1975. In 1981 he was arrested because he looked like

a bank robber the police were chasing. After spending a night in jail, Fischer wrote a rambling pamphlet titled *I Was Tortured in the Pasadena Jailhouse*.

Fischer also demonstrated many offbeat beliefs. For example, though his mother was Jewish, Fischer maintained strongly anti-Semitic (opposed to Jewish people) views. He also distrusted doctors, thought that the Russian government was out to kill him, and, according to an article in *Maclean's*, he had his dental fillings replaced "because he feared that Soviet (Russian) agents might be able to transmit damaging rays into his brain through the metal in his teeth."

### Later years

In 1992 Fischer agreed to take on Spassky again for \$5 million in prize money. The match was planned for the town of Sveti Stefan, in a region of the Yugoslav republic near the former republic of Bosnia-Herzegovina, which had recently been at war. At that time U.S. president George H. W. Bush (1924–) had imposed sanctions (the refusal to do business with a group in order to get that group to change its policies) on Yugoslavia. This meant that by playing in the match Fischer would be breaking the law. At a press conference, Fischer spat on a letter from the U.S. Treasury Department that threatened him with fines and imprisonment if he played. The match, which ended in fifteen draws, showed that Fischer was still a skilled player. When the U.S. government brought charges against Fischer in December 1992, he chose to stay in eastern Europe.

By the mid-1990s Fischer, the author of several chess books and the inventor of a chess timing clock, was living in Budapest, Hungary,

with a nineteen-year-old girlfriend, Hungarian chess star Zita Rajcsanyi. In 1999 he gave an interview to a Hungarian radio station in which he complained about Jews. In 2001 there were reports that Fischer was playing chess on the Internet under a different name.

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## ELLA FITZGERALD

**Born:** April 25, 1918

Newport News, Virginia

**Died:** June 15, 1996

Beverly Hills, California

*African American singer*

Ella Fitzgerald was one of the most exciting jazz singers of her time and, because of the naturalness of her style, had a popular appeal that extended far beyond the borders of jazz.

***A rising star***

Ella Fitzgerald was born on April 25, 1918, in Newport News, Virginia, but she spent her youth just outside New York City in Yonkers, New York, and received her musical education in public schools. During elementary school she began singing at her local church, the Bethany African Methodist Episcopal Church. At fifteen her mother died and she was cared for by her aunt in Harlem, a black neighborhood in New York that was rich with jazz music.

When only sixteen, she received her first big break at the Apollo Theater in Harlem, when she won an amateur-night contest and impressed saxophonist-bandleader Benny Carter (1907–). He recommended her to drummer-bandleader Chick Webb (c. 1900–1939), who hired her in 1935. She soon became a recording star with the band, and her own composition “A-tisket, A-tasket” (1938) was such a smash hit that the song became her trademark for many years thereafter. When Webb died in 1939, Fitzgerald assumed leadership of the band for the next year.

***“The First Lady of Song”***

By 1940 Fitzgerald was recognized throughout the music world as a vocal wonder—a singer with clarity of tone, flexibility of range, fluency of rhythm, and, above all, a talent for improvisation (to make up without practice) that was equally effective on ballads and faster tunes. Although for a long time she had a better reputation among fellow musicians than with the general public, this changed soon after she joined Norman Granz’s Jazz at the Philharmonic (JATP) in 1946. She made annual tours with the group

and was always the concert favorite. Three of her unfailing show-stoppers were “Oh, Lady Be Good,” “Stomping at the Savoy,” and “How High the Moon.” Each would begin at a medium tempo and then speed up as Fitzgerald moved up-tempo and “scatted” (that is, sang harmonic variations of the melody in nonsense syllables). The huge JATP crowds always responded well.

By the early 1950s Fitzgerald’s domination of fans’s and critics’s polls was absolute. In fact, she won the *Down Beat* readers’ poll every year from 1953 to 1970 and became known as “The First Lady of Song.” In 1955 she ended her twenty-year recording relationship with Decca in order to record for Norman Granz’s Verve label. She proceeded to produce a series of legendary “Songbook” albums, each devoted to the compositions of a great songwriter or songwriting team, such as the Gershwins (George, 1898–1937; Ira, 1896–1983), Cole Porter (1891–1964), Irving Berlin (1888–1989), and Duke Ellington (1899–1974). The lush orchestrations allowed Fitzgerald to display the classy pop-singer side of herself. In the two-volume Ellington set, her jazzier self moved aside for the melodist in her.

***Touring the world***

Under Granz’s personal management Fitzgerald also began to play choice hotel jobs and made her first feature film appearance in *Pete Kelly’s Blues* (1955). In 1957 she worked at the Copacabana in New York City and gave concerts at the Hollywood Bowl. In 1958, in the company of the Duke Ellington Orchestra, she gave a concert at Carnegie Hall as part of an extended European and United States tour with the band. In the early

1960s she continued to work the big hotel circuit—the Flamingo in Las Vegas, the Fairmont Hotel in San Francisco, and the Americana in New York City. She also continued to tour Europe, Latin America, and Japan with the Oscar Peterson (1925–) trio, which was three-fourths of Granz’s JATP house rhythm section. In 1965 and 1966 she was reunited with Ellington for another tour and record date.

Fitzgerald was always blessed with superb musicians accompanying her, from the full orchestral support of Chick Webb and Duke Ellington to the smaller JATP ensembles. In 1968 she teamed up with yet another, the magnificent pianist Tommy Flanagan, who headed a trio that served her into the mid-1970s. In 1971 Fitzgerald had serious eye surgery, but within a year she was performing again. Her singing, however, began to show evidence of decline: the voice that was once an instrument of natural beauty and effortless grace became a bit thin and strained. Nevertheless, so great was her talent that she continued to excite concert audiences and to record effectively. She appeared after the mid-1960s with over fifty symphonic orchestras in the United States.

A large, pleasant-looking woman with a surprisingly girlish speaking voice, Ella Fitzgerald sometimes forgot lyrics. But the audiences loved it and delighted in her ability to work her way out of these potentially embarrassing moments on stage. Unlike some other great jazz singers, like Billie Holiday (1915–1959) and Anita O’Day, Fitzgerald avoided falling into drug addiction. She was married twice. The first marriage, to Bernie Korngay in 1941, was annulled



*Ella Fitzgerald.*

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(made invalid) two years later. The second, to bassist Ray Brown (1926–) in 1948, ended in divorce in 1952 (they had one son).

### ***The legacy of Ella***

Was Ella Fitzgerald essentially a jazz singer or a pop singer? Jazz purists say that she was often glossy and predictable and that she lacked the emotional depth of Billie Holiday, the imagination of Sarah Vaughan (1924–1990) or Anita O’Day, and the blues-based power of Dinah Washington (1924–1963). The criticisms sprang partly from her “crossover” popularity and ignored her obvious strengths and contributions: Fitzgerald

was not only one of the pioneers of scat singing, but, beyond that, she was a down-to-earth singer whose harmonic variations were always unforced. Plus, she was a supreme melodist who never let herself get in the way of any song she sang.

Fitzgerald died on June 15, 1996, at the age of seventy-eight. She left a legacy that will not soon be forgotten. In her lifetime she was honored with fourteen Grammys, the Kennedy Center Award, as well as an honorary doctorate in music from Yale University. In 1992 President George Bush (1924–) honored her with the National Medal of Freedom. Fitzgerald's impressive financial estate was left in a trust, including the \$2.5 million in proceeds from the sale of her Beverly Hills home.

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## F. SCOTT FITZGERALD

**Born:** September 24, 1896

**St. Paul, Minnesota**

**Died:** December 21, 1940

**Hollywood, California**

*American author, novelist, and playwright*

The American author F. Scott Fitzgerald, a legendary figure of the 1920s, was an extremely observant artist, a beautiful writer, and an exceptional craftsman. His tragic life was ironically similar to his romantic art.

#### **Fitzgerald's younger years**

On September 24, 1896, Francis Scott Key Fitzgerald was born into an Irish Catholic family in St. Paul, Minnesota. His mother was from a wealthy family, and his father, Edward, was a furniture manufacturer. After Edward's business failed, he was employed by Proctor and Gamble, and the family transferred to Buffalo, New York. The family lived for some years in Buffalo and Syracuse; but in 1908, when Fitzgerald's father lost his job, they returned to St. Paul. For the most part, Fitzgerald was privately educated; he attended Newman School in Hackensack, New Jersey, from 1911 to 1913 and worked on the school paper.

Fitzgerald enrolled at Princeton University in 1913. There, he worked on *The Princeton Tiger*, a magazine published by the university. He also wrote for Princeton's Triangle Club, which was a distinguished organization that put on musicals. Because of ill health and low grades, he left the university in 1915. He returned to Princeton in 1916 but left a year

later without a degree and joined the U.S. Army as a second lieutenant. Stationed in Alabama in 1918, he met Zelda Sayre, then eighteen years old; he would marry her a few years later. After he left the army he took an advertising job for a brief period. Back home in St. Paul, he finished his first novel, *This Side of Paradise*, which was published in 1919, and that same year he had remarkable success placing nine short stories in leading magazines.

### **First publications**

Upon publication of *This Side of Paradise* (1920), Fitzgerald married Sayre in New York City. Of this period he later recalled riding up Fifth Avenue in a cab—young, rich, famous, and in love (he might easily have added handsome)—suddenly bursting into tears because he knew he would never be so happy again. He was right. Despite great earnings and fame, he and Zelda lived grandly and lavishly—but tragically.

A daughter was born in 1921 after the couple had spent some time in Europe. When Fitzgerald's second novel, *The Beautiful and the Damned* (1922), and a collection of short stories, *Tales of the Jazz Age* (1922), sold well, they rented a house on Long Island and ran into debt because of their reckless spending. Fitzgerald attempted to recover by writing a play, *The Vegetable* (1923), but it was unsuccessful. The Fitzgeralds went to Europe for over two years. The high points of this trip were publication of *The Great Gatsby* (1925) and the beginning of Scott's friendship with Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961). In 1927 Fitzgerald went to Hollywood on his first movie assignment. Afterward the Fitzgeralds again went overseas several times.



*F. Scott Fitzgerald.*

Zelda's first major nervous breakdown, in 1930, and her following treatment in a Swiss clinic became the basis for Fitzgerald's next novel, *Tender Is the Night* (1934). Zelda spent the rest of her life in and out of treatment centers, and Fitzgerald's own life ran a similar unfortunate course.

### **Analysis of the novels**

*This Side of Paradise* (1920), an autobiographical (having to do with one's life story) novel, tells of the youth and early manhood of a Princeton undergraduate. The climax occurs when he shifts his devotion from football to literature, while at the same time he

grows in character. This work struck a nerve in the reading public, chiefly for its new type of heroine—the “flapper,” a young woman who goes against the idea that a woman must be stricter in her morals and behavior than a man. She smokes, drinks, dances, and is considered to be somewhat low in her character and conduct.

*The Beautiful and the Damned* (1922) deals with a couple who is concerned with only themselves. Tony Patch, grandson of a millionaire, and his beautiful wife live extravagantly on the expectations of Tony's inheritance, but the grandfather discovers Tony's alcoholism and wastefulness and disinherits him; however, after the grandfather dies, the will is broken. Ironically, the inheritance only worsens the destruction of Tony's morals. As with most of Fitzgerald's novels, the autobiographical elements are fairly obvious.

*The Great Gatsby* (1925) is an American classic, generally regarded as Fitzgerald's finest work. It contains the themes that pass through all of his fiction: the hardened indifference of wealth, the hollowness of the American success myth, and the sleaziness of the wealthy lifestyle. It is the story of Jay Gatz, a successful, vaguely disreputable man, who has a background of poverty and has altered his name to “Gatsby.” He emerges as morally superior to the people who take advantage of his parties and the reckless rich whom he so hopelessly imitates. Gatsby dies unrealistically attempting to reclaim his former love, Daisy. *The Great Gatsby* is a major contribution to the writing work of the twentieth century.

The theme of *Tender Is the Night* (1934; later restructured by Malcolm Cowley) is parasitism—the health of one person gained

through harm to the other—and the facts bear an unmistakable resemblance to Scott and Zelda's marriage.

*The Last Tycoon* (1941), published after Fitzgerald's death—after Edmund Wilson put it together from Fitzgerald's unfinished manuscript—is the story of a movie producer. Though Wilson calls it Fitzgerald's most mature work, it has received very little critical attention.

### Short stories

Many regard Fitzgerald's short stories as his best work. The titles of his collections are a representation of the spirit of the times. *Flappers and Philosophers* (1921) contains “The Off-Shore Pirate” and “The Ice Palace.” *Tales of the Jazz Age* (1922) includes “May Day” and “The Diamond as Big as the Ritz.” The best-known pieces in *All the Sad Young Men* (1926) are “Winter Dreams,” a basic example of Fitzgerald's romantic vision, and “The Rich Boy.” Fitzgerald's final collection, *Taps at Reveille* (1935), includes “Babylon Revisited,” perhaps his most widely anthologized (stories written by different authors that are collected and published together) story.

### Last years

Fitzgerald earned over four hundred thousand dollars between 1919 and 1934, but he and Zelda lived so expensively that they barely managed to cover their bills. When *Tender Is the Night* failed to excite interest, financial problems became critical; by 1937 Fitzgerald owed forty thousand dollars despite continued earnings from magazine stories. Zelda had been permanently returned to medical care in 1934; and the years from 1935 to 1937 saw Fitzgerald's



own decline—increasing alcoholism and physical illness—which he described with emotional openness in articles that appear in *Esquire* in the mid-1930s.

In 1937 Fitzgerald signed a movie contract at a weekly salary of one thousand dollars. His relationship with gossip columnist Sheilah Graham during the last three years of his life is described in her *Beloved Infidel* (1958). After two heart attacks Fitzgerald died on December 21, 1940. Zelda Fitzgerald died in a fire in 1947 at Highland Sanitarium, Asheville, North Carolina, leaving a novel, *Save Me the Waltz* (1932).

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## GUSTAVE FLAUBERT

**Born:** December 12, 1821

Rouen, France

**Died:** May 8, 1880

Croisset, France

*French novelist and author*

The French novelist Gustave Flaubert was one of the most important forces in creating the modern novel as a deliberate art form and in introducing this objective form of writing in France.

### **Flaubert's early years**

Gustave Flaubert was born on December 12, 1821, in Rouen, France. His father, Achille-Cleophas Flaubert was a doctor and an important Rouen citizen, and his mother, Anne-Justine-Caroline Fleuriot, was a physician's daughter. He had an older brother, Achille, and a younger sister, Caroline, with whom he had a close relationship. Gustave began to develop his writing skills at an early age and wrote plays, which he put on for his family at the age of nine or ten. He loved to study history and was a wonderful reader. His sister died during childbirth when Flaubert was twenty-four. She left behind her daughter, Caroline Hamard, who was raised by Gustave and his mother. His mother would live with him until his fiftieth year.

As an adolescent of fifteen, Flaubert fell in love with an older married woman, Elisa Schlésinger, and remembered her ever after as a pure and innocent love. The young man was sent to Paris, France, to study law. He had easy access to prostitutes (people who receive money for performing sexual acts), and this led to venereal disease (a sexually transmitted disease) from which he never recovered.

### **Illness leads to writing career**

In 1845 Flaubert had his first attack of temporal-lobe epilepsy (a brain disorder that causes seizures [a partial or complete loss of



Gustave Flaubert.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

consciousness that involves a loss of muscle control)). He was crippled by his seizures, which were terrifying for him and reappeared at intervals throughout his life. In 1846 he had to face the deaths of his father and his beloved sister. Flaubert decided to quit his legal studies, since any emotional excitement brought on an attack of his epilepsy. He felt he must become an observer of life and not a participant in it, so he devoted himself only to his writing.

Flaubert found peace in literature, for he had been slowly moving away from the idea of writing emotionally and moving toward the idea of writing as a detachment, which

easily balanced with his physical state. He began writing *The Temptation of Saint Anthony*. He completed the first version in 1849, but he was unable to get it published. This was a bitter blow, and during the next twenty-five years he would spend time revising the work.

After this failure Flaubert left immediately for a twenty-month journey through the eastern Mediterranean, accompanied by his lifelong friend Maxime Du Camp (1822–1894). He had studied Egypt and the Holy Land which he had described in his work *Saint Anthony*. He found that he was able to recognize places that he had only read about and described in his work. This proved to him that art could help to describe and envision reality. If a person has never viewed a particular location, they can see it through its description.

### Madame Bovary

In 1851 Flaubert began writing *Madame Bovary*, on which he worked until 1856. It was published in 1857 and caused quite a disturbance; Flaubert in fact was unsuccessfully tried on the charge of contributing to public immorality (the state of doing wrong, and behaving in a way that is not socially acceptable). This novel analyzes the rural middle class, as well as tells of Emma Bovary, a girl that goes through life with romantic obsessions that she can not resolve. At the end of the novel, she finds her dream world in shreds around her, and she prefers death to accepting a world that does not meet with her fantasies, so she takes her own life.

*Madame Bovary* displayed a new technique for writing. Flaubert believed that writers must write from observed facts and events.

He wanted writers to be like scientists—objective, unprejudiced (fair), withdrawn, and impassive. Flaubert asked the writer to generalize his observations into an ideal, a type whose dynamic power becomes apparent through the artistry of its presentation.

Flaubert's next work, *Salammbô* (1862), recounted the revolt of the mercenaries (people who are hired to fight for a foreign ruler) against Carthage in the third century B.C.E. The novel is repetitious; however, Flaubert's accurate reconstruction of ancient times did influence later historical novels.

### A Sentimental Education

In 1864 Flaubert started work on *A Sentimental Education*, which was published in 1869. His great Parisian novel, this work is considered the equal of *Madame Bovary* although less popular. Flaubert's *A Sentimental Education* suggests that unfulfilled dreams are always superior to reality, which destroys them.

The end of the 1860s and the start of the 1870s marked a period of disasters for Flaubert. He was stunned by the deaths of many of his closest friends. In 1872 he also lost his mother, the greatest of all his losses. Flaubert's depression shows in his next work, a revision (the third) of his earlier *Temptation of Saint Anthony* (1874). It summarizes his lifelong absorption with religion and proposes the beliefs that all religions are equally true and equally false, equally beautiful and equally a source of troubled emotion since they all must end.

### Three Tales

Flaubert had brought up the orphaned niece of his beloved sister. His niece was

financially ruined in 1875, and he sacrificed his fortune in an attempt to help her. Bankrupt, unable to help her further yet worrying over both their situations, he turned to the writing of his *Three Tales* (1877): "A Simple Heart," "Legend of Saint Julian the Hospitaller," and "Hérodiades."

Flaubert began his uncompleted last work, *Bouvard and Pécuchet*, before the financial crisis of his niece; he continued it after he had finished the *Three Tales*. On May 8, 1880, Flaubert died from a brain hemorrhage (the bleeding from a broken blood vessel) after having spent his last years in anguish. He was sixty years old.

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**MALCOLM  
FORBES**

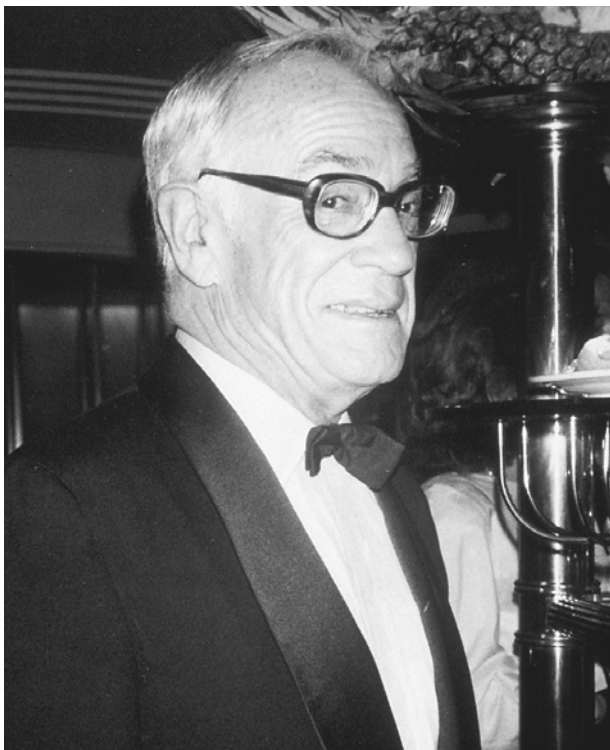
**Born:** August 19, 1919

**New York, New York**

**Died:** February 24, 1990

**Far Hills, New Jersey**

*American publisher*



Malcolm Forbes.

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Millionaire Malcolm Forbes was the publisher of *Forbes* magazine from 1957 to 1990. He was a man known for his business sense and his lavish lifestyle.

### *The young Malcolm*

Malcolm Stevenson Forbes was born on August 19, 1919, in Brooklyn, New York, to B. C. (Bertie) Forbes and Adelaide Stevenson Forbes. He was one of five children who grew up in an upper-middle-class family in Englewood, New Jersey. His interest in publications developed early as he wrote and printed a

household newspaper when he was eight years old. At the age of thirteen he obtained his first printing press and by the age of fifteen he had published papers for his household, the scouts, and school. He would spend time in the summers working at the *Forbes* magazine offices, which his father founded. He attended the private schools in Tarrytown, New York, and graduated with honors from Lawrenceville School, in New Jersey, in 1937. He continued his education at Princeton University, where he majored in political science.

### *Inherited wealth*

A savvy businessman by all accounts, Forbes inherited his wealth from his father who established him at the *Fairfield Times* newspaper as owner and publisher only days after his graduation from Princeton. As he was fond of saying, he was loaded with “sheer ability, spelled i-n-h-e-r-i-t-a-n-c-e,” as quoted in *Forbes*. He went on to publish the *Lancaster Tribune* in 1942, and four years later, after a stint in the army on the European front of World War II (1939–45; a war in which England, China, the Soviet Union, and from 1941 the United States, fought against and defeated the forces of Germany, Italy, and Japan) he joined the staff at *Forbes* magazine. He was first an associate publisher, then publisher, editor, editor in chief, vice president, and, finally, president. As a politician, Forbes was less than successful; he said that he was “nosed out by a landslide” in a New Jersey race for governor in 1957.

### *Lavish lifestyle*

Forbes did not like to put an actual figure on his income and holdings, though he published practically everybody else's value.

Early in 1990, the *New York Post* estimated Forbes's holdings by totaling up his collections, houses, and publications, but as *Time* magazine reported it, the estimates were generous; "Malcolm is a billionaire, but only if you swallow an estimate of \$65 million for his flagship magazine's annual profits." *People* magazine listed eight houses, a palace in Tangier, Morocco, a chateau in Normandy, France, and the island of Lauthala in Fiji as his dwellings.

Forbes is characterized as a man who loved the spotlight, who shamelessly enjoyed the privileges his money afforded him, and who was always in pursuit of adventure. Forbes was a balloonist, a motorcyclist, and a sailor who took many trips on his huge yacht, the *Highlander*. He collected anything precious and beautiful—most famously, Faberge eggs.

Forbes was married for thirty-nine years to Roberta Remsen Laidlaw before their divorce in 1985. The couple had five children: Malcolm S. Jr., Robert Laidlaw, Christopher Charles, Timothy Carter, and Moira Hamilton. Malcolm S. Jr., known as Steve, ran for president in 1996.

Although not an obvious charitable contributor, Forbes did give millions of dollars each year to charities. He had been at a charity bridge tournament the day he died of a heart attack on February 24, 1990. "Malcolm Forbes was a giant of American business," said then-President George Bush (1924–), as quoted in *Forbes*: "His success in publishing reflected the tremendous vitality of our nation and served to inform and inspire a generation of successful business leaders. He was greatly admired and will be greatly missed." Former president Ronald Reagan offered a similar tribute: "Malcolm was truly a dear friend and

we will miss him sorely. We hold our memories of him close to our hearts and are thankful to have known him."

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## HENRY FORD

**Born:** July 30, 1863

**Dearborn, Michigan**

**Died:** April 7, 1947

**Dearborn, Michigan**

*American automobile pioneer and industrialist*

After founding the Ford Motor Company, the American industrialist Henry Ford developed a system of mass production based on the assembly line and the conveyor belt which produced low-priced cars that were affordable to middle-class Americans.

### **Ford's early years**

The oldest of six children, Henry Ford was born on July 30, 1863, on a prosperous farm near Dearborn, Michigan. He attended school until the age of fifteen, at which time he developed a dislike of farm life and a fascination for machinery. He had little interest in

school and was a poor student. He never learned to spell or to read well. Ford would write using only the simplest of sentences. He instead preferred to work with mechanical objects, particularly watches. He repaired his first watch when he was thirteen years old, and would continue to repair watches for enjoyment throughout his life. Although he did not like working on the farm, he did learn that there was great value in working hard and being responsible.

In 1879 Ford left for Detroit, Michigan, to become an apprentice (a person who works for another to learn a specific skill or trade) at a machine shop. He then moved to the Detroit Drydock Company. During his apprenticeship he received \$2.50 a week, but room and board cost \$3.50 so he labored nights repairing clocks and watches. He later worked for Westinghouse, locating and repairing road engines.

Ford's father wanted him to be a farmer and offered him forty acres of timberland, provided he give up machinery. Ford accepted the proposal, then built a first-class machinist's workshop on the property. His father was disappointed, but Ford did use the two years on the farm to win a bride, Clara Bryant.

### ***Ford's first car***

Ford began to spend more and more time in Detroit working for the Edison Illuminating Company, which later became the Detroit Edison Company. By 1891 he had left the farm permanently. Four years later he became chief engineer. While at the Edison Illuminating Company he met Thomas A. Edison (1847–1931), who eventually became one of his closest friends.

Ford devoted his spare time to building an automobile with an internal combustion engine, a type of engine in which a combination of fuel and air is burned inside of the engine to produce mechanical energy to perform useful work. His first car, finished in 1896, followed the attempts, some successful, of many other innovators. His was a small car driven by a two-cylinder, four-cycle motor and by far the lightest (500 pounds) of the early American vehicles. The car was mounted on bicycle wheels and had no reverse gear.

In 1899 the Detroit Edison Company forced Ford to choose between automobiles and his job. Ford chose cars and that year formed the Detroit Automobile Company, which collapsed after he disagreed with his financial backers. His next venture was the unsuccessful Henry Ford Automobile Company. Ford did gain some status through the building of racing cars, which resulted in the "999," driven by the famous Barney Oldfield (1878–1946).

### ***Ford Motor Company***

By this time Ford had conceived the idea of a low-priced car for the masses, but this notion flew in the face of popular thought, which considered cars as only for the rich. After the "999" victories, Alex Y. Malcomson, a Detroit coal dealer, offered to aid Ford in a new company. The result was the Ford Motor Company, founded in 1903, with its small, \$28,000 financing supplied mostly by Malcomson. However, exchanges of stock were made to obtain a small plant, motors, and transmissions. Ford's stock was in return for his services. Much of the firm's success can be credited to Ford's assis-

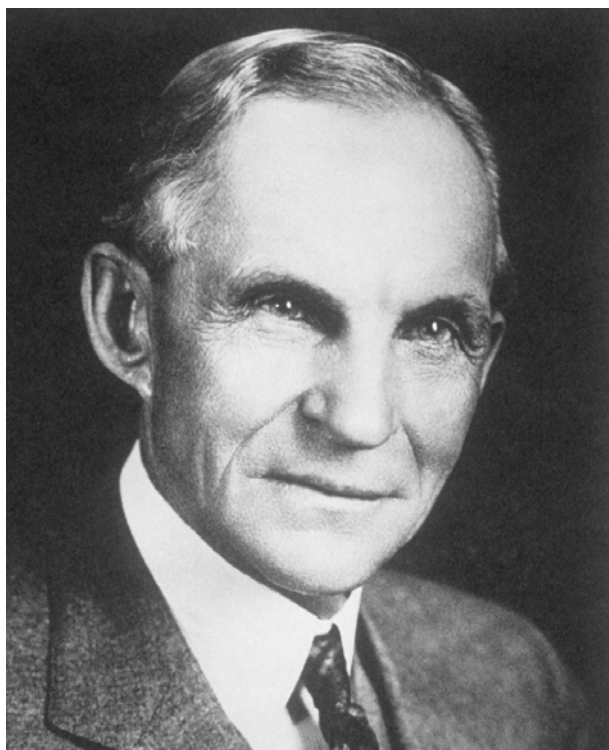
tants—James S. Couzens, C. H. Wills, and John and Horace Dodge.

By 1903 over fifteen hundred firms had attempted to enter the new and struggling automobile industry, but only a few, such as Ransom Eli Olds (1864–1950), had become firmly established. Ford began production of a Model A, which imitated the Oldsmobile, and followed with other models, to the letter S. The public responded, and the company flourished. By 1907 profits exceeded \$1,100,000, and the net worth of the company stood at \$1,038,822.

Ford also defeated the Selden patent (the legal rights given to a company or person for the sole use, sale, or production of an item for a limited period of time), which had been granted on a “road engine” in 1895. Rather than challenge the patent’s legal soundness, manufacturers secured a license to produce engines. When Ford was denied such a license, he fought back; after eight years of legal action, the courts decided the patent was valid but not violated. The case gave the Ford Company valuable publicity, with Ford cast as the underdog, but by the time the issue was settled, the situation had been reversed.

### ***New principles***

In 1909 Ford made the important decision to manufacture only one type of car—the Model T, or the “Tin Lizzie.” By now he firmly controlled the company, having bought out Malcomson. The Model T was durable, easy to operate, and economical; it sold for \$850 and came in one color—black. Within four years Ford was producing over forty thousand cars per year.



*Henry Ford.*

During this rapid expansion Ford held firmly to two principles: cutting costs by increasing productivity and paying high wages to his employees. In production methods Ford believed the work should be brought by a conveyor belt to the worker at waist-high level. This assembly-line technique required seven years to perfect. In 1914 he startled the industrial world by raising the minimum wage to five dollars a day, almost double the company’s average wage. In addition, the “Tin Lizzie” had dropped in price to \$600; it later went down to \$360.

### ***World War I***

Ford was now an internationally known figure, but his public activities were less suc-

cessful than his industrial ones. In 1915 his peace ship, the *Oskar II*, sailed to Europe to seek an end to World War I (1914–18; a war fought between the German-led Central powers and the Allies: England, the United States, Italy, and other nations). His suit against the *Chicago Tribune* for calling him an anarchist (a person who desires to change the existing government) received unfortunate publicity. In 1918 his race for the U.S. Senate as a Democrat met a narrow defeat. Ford's worst mistake was his approval of an anti-Semitic (anti-Jewish) campaign waged by the Ford-owned newspaper, the *Dearborn Independent*.

When the United States entered World War I, Ford's output of military equipment and his promise to give back all profits on war production (which he never did) silenced the critics. By the end of the conflict his giant River Rouge plant, the world's largest industrial facility, was near completion. Ford gained total control of the company by buying the outstanding stock.

In the early 1920s the company continued its rapid growth, at one point producing 60 percent of the total United States output. But problems began to arise. Ford was an inflexible man and continued to rely on the Model T, even as public tastes shifted. By the middle of the decade Ford had lost his dominant position to the General Motors (GM) company. He finally saw his error and in 1927 stopped production of the Model T. However, since the new Model A was not produced for eighteen months, there was a good deal of unemployment among Ford workers. The new car still did not permanently overtake the GM competition, Chevrolet, and Ford remained second.

### *Final years*

Ford's last years were frustrating. He never accepted the changes brought about by the Great Depression (a period in the 1930s marked by severe economic hardship) and the 1930s New Deal, President Franklin D. Roosevelt's (1882–1945) plan to help the United States recover from the Great Depression. He fell under the spell of Harry Bennett, a notorious figure with connections to organized crime, who, as head of Ford's security department, influenced every phase of company operations and created friction between Ford and his son Edsel. For various reasons Ford, alone in his industry, refused to cooperate with the National Recovery Administration, a 1930s government agency that prepared and oversaw codes of fair competition for businesses and industries. He did not like labor unions, refused to recognize the United Automobile Workers (UAW), and brutally restricted their attempts to organize the workers of his company.

Ford engaged in some philanthropic or charitable activity, such as the Henry Ford Hospital in Detroit. The original purpose of the Ford Foundation, established in 1936 and now one of the world's largest foundations, was to avoid estate taxes. Ford's greatest philanthropic accomplishment was the Ford Museum and Greenfield Village in Dearborn, Michigan.

A stroke in 1938 slowed Ford, but he did not trust Edsel and so continued to exercise control of his company. During World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis: Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), Ford at first made pacifist, or peace-minded, statements, but changed his



mind and contributed greatly to the war effort. Ford's grandson, Henry Ford II, took over the company after the war. Henry Ford died on April 7, 1947, in Dearborn.

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## FRANCIS OF ASSISI

**Born:** c. 1182

**Assisi, Umbria, Italy**

**Died:** October 1226

**Assisi, Umbria, Italy**

*Italian religious leader*

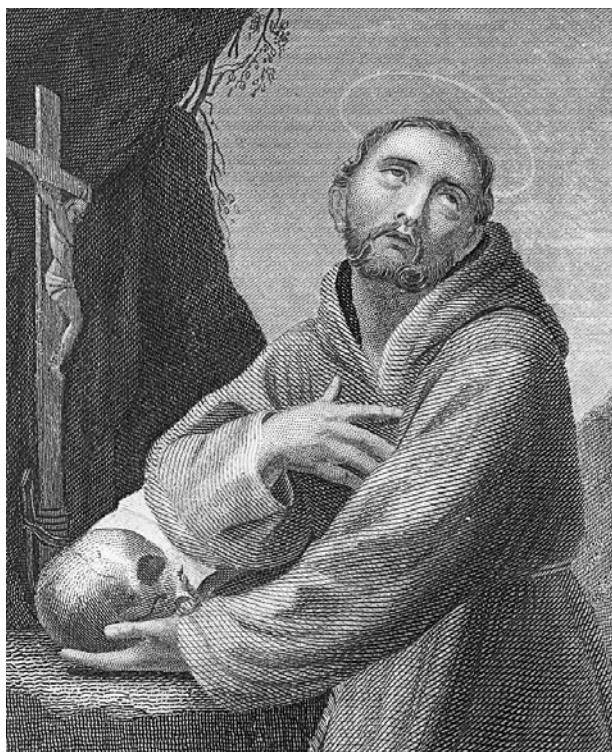
The Italian religious leader St. Francis of Assisi founded the religious order known as the Franciscans. He became renowned for his love, simplicity, and practice of poverty.

### Early years

Francis was born Giovanni di Bernardore, but because his father called him Francis, so did everyone else. He was baptized shortly after his birth in the town of Assisi in central Italy in 1182. His father, Pietro di Bernardone, was a successful cloth merchant, and Francis grew up with a love of fine clothes and good times. He led the other young men of the town in enjoying good food and drink, singing, and dancing. He was educated in math, poetry, and music and learned to read and write while attending a school that was part of the Church of Saint Giorgio of Assisi. Francis was expected to become a cloth merchant like his father and did not plan to attend college.

Francis joined the forces from Assisi in their fight against Perugia, another town in Italy. When he was twenty, he was taken prisoner. A year later, sobered by jail and sickness, he underwent several religious experiences in quick succession. In one of these, while he was praying in the run-down chapel of Saint Damiano outside Assisi, he heard a voice from the crucifix telling him, "Francis, go repair my house, which is falling in ruins." Francis went quickly back to the city, sold his horse and some cloth from his father's shop, and came back to give the money to the priest at Saint Damiano.

Francis's father, furious that his son wasted his money on churches and beggars, took him before the bishop to bring him to his senses. When the hearing began, Francis calmly took off all of his clothes, gave them to his father (the astonished bishop quickly covered Francis with a cloak), and said that he was now recognizing only his Father in heaven, not his father on earth. He lived his life from this time on without money and without family ties.



*Francis of Assisi.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

### ***His spirit***

The thirteenth century was a time of troubadours, or poet-musicians, and Francis had the best of their characteristics. He was happy, he sang, he loved nature; he spoke to the birds and the animals as though they were his friends. In his “Canticle of Creatures,” also called “Canticle of the Sun” (a canticle is a religious song), he wrote about Brother Sun and Sister Moon. Once he was heard to beg pardon of his own body for its sins. Francis referred to his way of life as his marriage to Lady Poverty.

The thirteenth century was also a time when the Christian religion was taken very

much for granted, and Francis felt the need to return to the original spirit of Christ. This meant living without materialistic attachments, and it also meant loving other people. A number of the young men of Assisi, attracted by Francis’s example, joined him in his new way of life. In 1209 Francis and his companions went to Rome, Italy, where they presented their ideas to Pope Innocent III (c. 1160–c. 1216; the pope is the head of the Catholic Church) and received his approval. They found themselves influencing more and more people, including a lady named Clare, whom Francis helped to enter a monastery of nuns and who later began the “second order” of Franciscans, the order for women.

In 1212 Francis left for the Holy Land, or Palestine (the land in the Middle East where Christ had lived). His ship ran into bad weather, and he had to return to Italy. Two years later his adventurous spirit and missionary zeal drove him to seek the Moors, who were Muslim, in Spain, but sickness prevented him from completing the trip. He tried once more, in 1219, going to Egypt with the Crusaders (religious warriors who attempted to take control of the Holy Land). At the siege of the city of Damietta in Egypt, Francis boldly walked through the battle lines into the enemy camp and met the king of Egypt, who, apparently impressed with Francis’s ideas about brotherly love, gave him permission to continue on to the Holy Land.

### ***Franciscan order***

When Francis heard that trouble had started in Italy among some of his followers, now numbering in the thousands, he returned home. The force of his own personality had held the group together, but now Francis saw

the need for a more practical guide to his kind of Christian life. He insisted that the new rule stress the poverty he felt was so important: the order could not possess money; all its houses must be simply furnished; and each Franciscan could have only a tunic and cord (Francis himself wore an old sack tied at the waist), a pair of pants, and, if really necessary, a pair of shoes. Francis went to Rome in 1223 to present the new rule to Pope Honorius III, who approved it wholeheartedly. It was during this visit that, according to tradition, Francis met Dominic, who had founded his own religious order. The Franciscan and Dominican religious orders have always felt a close relationship that dates back to the friendship between their founders.

### ***A religious vision***

Francis returned to Assisi and began to spend more and more time alone in prayer, leaving the decisions about his organization to others. While he was praying on Mt. Alvernia in 1224, he had a vision of a figure that looked like an angel, and when the vision disappeared Francis felt the wounds of the crucified Christ in his hands, side, and feet. He was careful not to show them, but several close friends reported after his death that Francis had suffered in his body as Christ had suffered on the cross. His last two years were lived in almost constant pain and near-blindness. He died in 1226. Two years later he was made a saint.

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## BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

**Born:** January 17, 1706

**Boston, Massachusetts**

**Died:** April 17, 1790

**Philadelphia, Pennsylvania**

*American scholar, diplomat, author, scientist, and inventor*

Benjamin Franklin was a leader of America's revolutionary generation. His character and thought were shaped by his religious upbringing, the philosophy of the historical era known as the Enlightenment, and the environment of colonial America.

### ***Youthful character***

Benjamin Franklin was born on January 17, 1706, in Boston, Massachusetts, into a devoted Puritan household. (The Puritans were a religious group that stood against the practices of the Church of England.) In 1683 his family had left England and moved to New England in search of religious freedom. Franklin's father was a candlemaker and a mechanic, but, his son said, his "great Excellence lay in a sound Understanding, and solid Judgment." Franklin also praised his mother, who raised a family of thirteen children.

Young Franklin was not content at home. He received little formal schooling and by age eleven went to work making candles and soap at his father's shop. However, he hated this trade—especially the smell. Franklin eventually left his father's shop and went to work for his brother James, who was the printer of a Boston newspaper. While

learning the business Franklin read every word that came into the shop and was soon writing clever pieces that criticized the Boston establishment. He loved to read and even became a vegetarian in order to save money to buy books. When authorities imprisoned James for his own critical articles, Benjamin continued the paper himself. In 1723 at age seventeen Franklin left home and moved to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

By this time Franklin had begun to embrace the ideas of such Enlightenment thinkers as the physicist Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727) and the philosopher John Locke (1632–1727). The Enlightenment, which began in the sixteenth century and lasted until the late seventeenth century, was a movement that promoted the use of reason to learn truth. During this time period, many important scientific advances and discoveries were made through the use of observation and experimentation.

### ***Civil and scientific interests***

In Philadelphia, Franklin began working as a printer. In 1724 he went to England, where he quickly became a master printer and lived among the writers of London. He returned to Philadelphia and started his own press, publishing a newspaper called the *Pennsylvania Gazette* and a publication called *Poor Richard's Almanack*, which contained advice and sayings that are still popular in America today. He then became clerk of the Pennsylvania Assembly and postmaster of Philadelphia. At the same time he operated a bookshop and developed partnerships with other printers. Franklin also became involved in community improvement in 1727. He organized the Junto, a club of tradesmen

whose activities included sponsoring a library, a fire company, a college, an insurance company, and a hospital.

Next, Franklin turned to science. Having already invented what became known as the Franklin stove (a metal stove used for heating a room), he now became fascinated with electricity. In a famous experiment he used a kite to prove that lightning is a form of electricity. The mysterious and terrifying natural occurrence now had an explanation. Franklin's letters concerning his discoveries and theories about electricity brought him fame. His invention of the lightning rod (a metal rod that is set on top of a building to protect it from being damaged if it is struck by lightning) added to his reputation.

### ***Political career***

Franklin's 1751 election to the Pennsylvania Assembly began his nearly forty years as a public official. He became a leader in the long-dominant Quaker political party, which opposed the Proprietary party (a political party made up of people who sought to preserve the power of the Penn family, the founding family of Pennsylvania). In the Assembly, Franklin created lawmaking strategies and wrote powerful statements defending the right of the people's elected representatives to regulate the government of Pennsylvania.

As a representative in the Assembly, Franklin was initially loyal to the British empire. He was on the side of the empire during the French and Indian War (1754–63; a war fought between France and Great Britain, which resulted in British control of land in North America east of the Mississippi River). In order to defend the British empire, he persuaded the Assembly to pass Pennsyl-

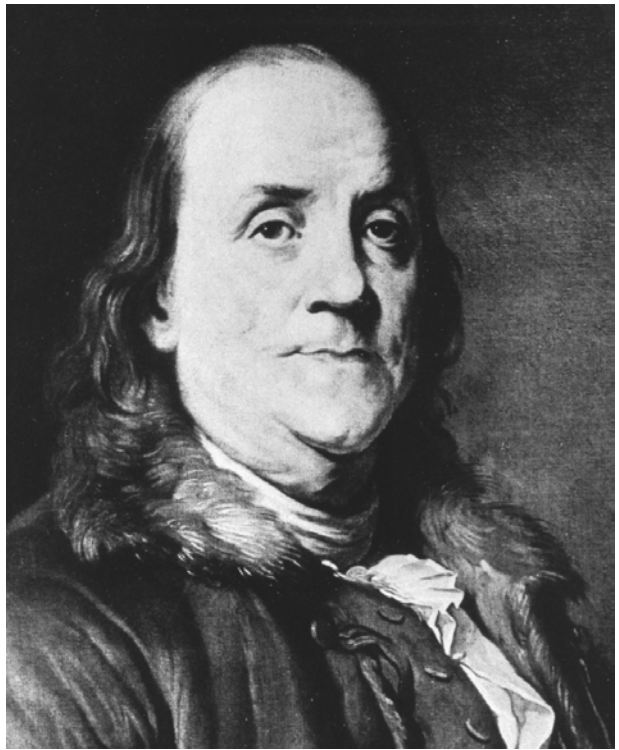
vania's first militia law, set aside budget money for defense, and appoint government representatives to carry on a full-scale war. For three decades or more Franklin had considered Britain a vital, freedom-extending country as dear and useful to its people in America as to those in England. Nevertheless, he was occasionally alarmed by British indifference toward the desires of people living in the colonies.

Franklin lived in England from 1757 to 1762, seeking aid in restraining the power of the Penn family in Pennsylvania. Returning to America for nearly two years, he traveled through the American colonies as deputy postmaster general for North America. In this position, which he held for twenty years, Franklin greatly improved the postal service. He also continued his aid to poorer members of his family and to the family of his wife, Deborah. They had two children, Frankie, who died at four, and Sally. Deborah Franklin also raised her husband's illegitimate son, William.

In 1764 Franklin lost his seat in the Pennsylvania Assembly. However, he returned to England as Pennsylvania's agent, with a special assignment to request that Pennsylvania be taken over as a royal colony. When the dangers of royal government began to increase, Franklin decided not to make the request.

### ***More radical position***

Franklin played a central role in the great crises that led to the Declaration of Independence in 1776. In 1765 the Stamp Act placed a tax on all business and law papers and printed materials in the American colonies. Many colonists opposed the tax as taxation without representation. After learning of the



*Benjamin Franklin.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

violent protest against the Stamp Act, Franklin stiffened his own stand against the measure. In a dramatic appearance before Parliament in 1766, he outlined American insistence on self-government. Nevertheless, when the tax was removed Franklin again expressed his faith in America's prospects within the British empire.

Franklin was the foremost American spokesman in Britain for the next nine years. However, in 1775 his service in England came to an unhappy end. Against his instructions, his friends in Massachusetts published letters by Massachusetts governor Thomas Hutchinson (1711–1780) that Franklin had obtained on a confidential basis. Exposed as a

dishonest schemer, Franklin was reprimanded (scolded) by the British in 1774 and removed from his position as postmaster general. Although he was in danger of being jailed as a traitor, Franklin continued to work for better relations. Radical protests in America and the buildup of British troops there doomed such efforts.

### *The revolutionary*

Franklin left England in March 1775. The American Revolution (1775–83; a war in which American colonies fought for independence from Great Britain) had begun on April 19, 1775, with the battles of Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts. During the next several months in America, Franklin enjoyed the surge for independence. In 1776 he helped draft the Declaration of Independence and was among those who readily signed his name to it. At the age of seventy he had become a passionate revolutionary.

Franklin's skill was most in demand as a diplomat (someone who is skilled at handling difficult affairs) to secure desperately needed aid in the American war for independence. In 1776 he was appointed as a representative to France. There he gained astonishing personal success, winning the admiration of French intellectuals and the Parisian society. However, Franklin's diplomatic tasks proved more difficult. Though France was anxious for England to be defeated, it could not afford openly to aid the American rebels unless success seemed likely.

In 1777 Franklin worked behind the scenes to speed war supplies across the Atlantic and win support from French political leaders who might help the United States. In December 1777 his efforts were rewarded

when France's King Louis XVI (1754–1793) entered into an alliance with the United States. As the leading American representative in Europe, Franklin helped get French armies and navies on their way to North America, continued his efforts to supply American armies, and secured almost all of the outside aid that came to the American rebels.

### *Peace commissioner*

After the British surrender at Yorktown, Virginia, in 1781, Franklin made the first contact with representatives of the British government. During the summer of 1782 as the other peace commissioners, John Adams (1735–1826) and John Jay (1745–1829), made their way toward peace negotiations in Paris, Franklin set the main terms of the final agreement. These included independence, guaranteed fishing rights, removal of all British forces, and a western boundary on the Mississippi River. Franklin, Adams, and Jay made an ideal team, winning for the United States a peace treaty of genuine national independence in 1783.

Franklin returned to Philadelphia from France in 1785. He accepted election for three years as president of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania and was active in various projects and causes. Although ill, he also finished his autobiography.

### *Framing a new government*

Franklin's most notable service at this time was his attendance at the Constitutional Convention during the summer of 1787. At the convention's close he asked each member, who like himself might not entirely approve of the Constitution, to sign the document to give it a chance as the best frame of

government that could be produced at the time. His last public service was to urge ratification (approval) of the Constitution and to approve the inauguration (swearing into office) of the new government under his old friend George Washington (1732–1799). Franklin died peacefully in Philadelphia on April 17, 1790.

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The work of Sigmund Freud, the Austrian founder of psychoanalysis, marked the beginning of a modern, dynamic psychology by providing the first well-organized explanation of the inner mental forces determining human behavior.

### Freud's early life

Sigmund Freud was born on May 6, 1856, in Freiberg, Moravia (now Czech Republic). Sigmund was the first child of his twice-widowed father's third marriage. His mother, Amalia Nathanson, was nineteen years old when she married Jacob Freud, aged thirty-nine. Sigmund's two stepbrothers from his father's first marriage were approximately the same age as his mother, and his older stepbrother's son, Sigmund's nephew, was his earliest playmate. Thus, the boy grew up in an unusual family structure, his mother halfway in age between himself and his father. Though seven younger children were born, Sigmund always remained his mother's favorite. When he was four, the family moved to Vienna (now the capital of Austria), the capital city of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy (the complete rule of Central Europe by Hungary and Austria from 1867 to 1918). Freud would live in Vienna until the year before his death.

### Youth in Vienna

Because the Freuds were Jewish, Sigmund's early experience was that of an outsider in an overwhelmingly Catholic community. However, Emperor Francis Joseph (1830–1916) had liberated the Jews of Austria, giving them equal rights and permitting them to settle anywhere in the empire. Many

## SIGMUND FREUD

**Born:** May 6, 1856

**Freiberg, Moravia (now Czech Republic)**

**Died:** September 23, 1939

**London, England**

*Austrian psychologist, author, and psychoanalyst*

Jewish families came to Vienna, as did the Freuds in 1860, where the standard of living was higher and educational and professional opportunities were better than in the provinces. They lived in an area that had a high concentration of Jewish people, called the Leopoldstadt slum. The housing was cramped and they had to move often, sometimes living with his father's family. By his tenth year, Sigmund's family had grown and he had five sisters and one brother.

Freud went to the local elementary school, then attended the Sperl Gymnasium (a secondary school in Europe that students attend to prepare for college) in Leopoldstadt, from 1866 to 1873. He studied Greek and Latin, mathematics, history, and the natural sciences, and was a superior student. He passed his final examination with flying colors, qualifying to enter the University of Vienna at the age of seventeen. His family had recognized his special scholarly gifts from the beginning, and although they had only four bedrooms for eight people, Sigmund had his own room throughout his school days. He lived with his parents until he was twenty-seven, as was the custom at that time.

### ***Pre-psychoanalytic work***

Freud enrolled in medical school in 1873. Vienna had become the world capital of medicine, and the young student was initially attracted to the laboratory and the scientific side of medicine rather than clinical practice. He spent seven instead of the usual five years acquiring his doctorate.

Freud received his doctor of medicine degree at the age of twenty-four. He fell in love and wanted to marry, but the salaries available to a young scientist could not sup-

port a wife and family. He had met Martha Bernays, the daughter of a well-known Hamburg family, when he was twenty-six; they were engaged two months later. They were separated during most of the four years which preceded their marriage, and married in 1887. Of their six children, a daughter, Anna, would become one of her father's most famous followers.

Freud spent three years as a resident physician in the famous Allgemeine Krankenhaus, a general hospital and the medical center of Vienna. He spent five months in the psychiatry (the area of medicine involving emotional and mental health) department headed by Theodor Meynert. Psychiatry at this time was rigid and descriptive. The psychological meaning of behavior was not itself considered important; behavior was only a set of symptoms to be studied in order to understand the structures of the brain. Freud's later work changed this attitude.

Freud, during the last part of his residency, received some money to pursue his neurological (having to do with the nervous system) studies abroad. He spent four months at the Salpêtrière clinic in Paris, France, studying under the neurologist (a person who studies the nervous system and treats people with neurological problems) Jean Martin Charcot (1825–1893). Here, Freud first became interested in hysteria (an illness in which a person complains of physical symptoms without a medical cause) and Charcot's demonstration of its psychological origins.

### ***Beginning of psychoanalysis***

Freud returned to Vienna, established himself in the private practice of neurology,

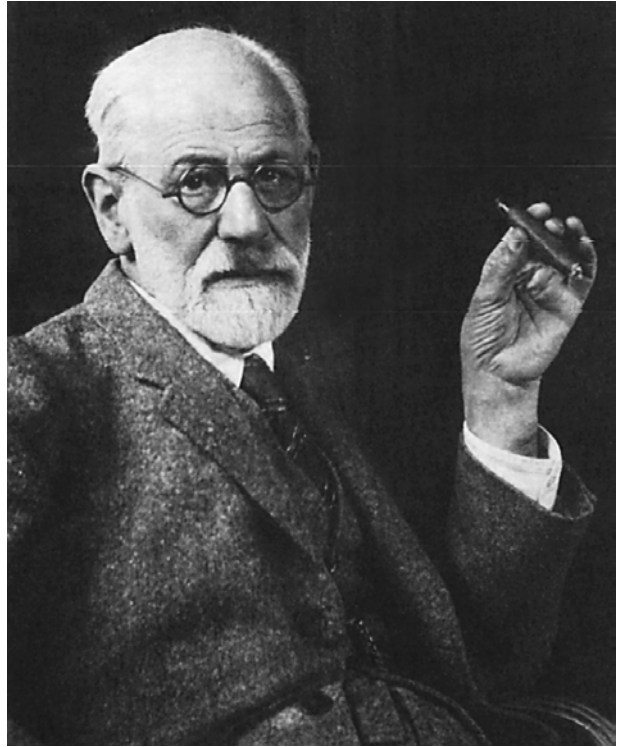


and married. He soon devoted his efforts to the treatment of hysterical patients with the help of hypnosis (the act of bringing about a change in a person's attention which results in a change in their bodily experiences), a technique he had studied under Charcot. Joseph Breuer (1857–1939), an older colleague (a partner or an associate in the same area of interest), told Freud about a hysterical patient whom he had treated successfully by hypnotizing her and then tracing her symptoms back to traumatic (emotionally stressful) events she had experienced at her father's deathbed. Breuer called his treatment "catharsis" and traced its effectiveness to the release of "pent-up emotions." Freud's experiments with Breuer's technique were successful. Together with Breuer he published *Studies on Hysteria* (1895). At the age of thirty-nine Freud first used the term "psychoanalysis," (a way to treat certain mental illnesses by exposing and discussing a patient's unconscious thoughts and feelings) and his major lifework was well under way.

At about this time Freud began a unique project, his own self-analysis (the act of studying or examining oneself), which he pursued primarily by analyzing his dreams. A major scientific result was *The Interpretation of Dreams* (1901). By the turn of the century Freud had developed his therapeutic (having to do with treating a mental or physical disability) technique, dropping the use of hypnosis and shifting to the more effective and more widely applicable method of "free association."

### ***Development of psychoanalysis***

Following Freud's work on dreams, he wrote a series of papers in which he explored the influence of unconscious thought processes



Sigmund Freud.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

on various aspects of human behavior. He recognized that the most powerful among the unconscious forces, which lead to neuroses (mental disorders), are the sexual desires of early childhood that have been shut out from conscious awareness, yet have preserved their powerful force within the personality. He described his highly debatable views concerning the early experiences of sexuality in *Three Essays on the Theory of Sexuality* (1905), a work that first met violent protest, but was gradually accepted by practically all schools of psychology (the area of science involving the study of the mind).

After 1902 Freud gathered a small group of interested colleagues on Wednesday evenings for presentation of psychoanalytic papers and discussion. This was the beginning of the psychoanalytic movement. Swiss psychiatrists Eugen Bleuler and Carl Jung (1875–1961) formed a study group in Zurich in 1907, and the first International Psychoanalytic Congress was held in Salzburg in 1908.

### Later years

In 1923 Freud developed a cancerous (having to do with cancer cells that attack the healthy tissues of the body) growth in his mouth, which eventually led to his death sixteen years and thirty-three operations later. In spite of this, these were years of great scientific productivity. He published findings on the importance of aggressive as well as sexual drives (*Beyond the Pleasure Principle*, 1920); developed a new theoretical framework in order to organize his new data concerning the structure of the mind (*The Ego and the Id*, 1923); and revised his theory of anxiety to show it as the signal of danger coming from unconscious fantasies, rather than the result of repressed sexual feelings (*Inhibitions, Symptoms and Anxiety*, 1926).

In March 1938 Austria was occupied by German troops, and that month Freud and his family were put under house arrest. Through the combined efforts of many influential friends who were well connected politically, the Freuds were permitted to leave Austria in June. Freud spent his last year in London, England, undergoing surgery. He died on September 23, 1939. The influence of his discoveries on the science and culture of the twentieth century is limitless.

### Personal life

Freud was an intensely private man. He read extensively, loved to travel, and was an avid collector of archeological oddities. Devoted to his family, he always practiced in a consultation room attached to his home. He valued a small circle of close friends to whom he was intensely loyal, and inspired loyalty in a circle of disciples that persists to this day.

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## BETTY FRIEDAN

**Born:** February 4, 1921

**Peoria, Illinois**

*American women's rights activist, author, and organization founder*

Betty Friedan is a leader of the feminist (women's rights) movement, author of *The Feminine Mystique*, and a founding member of the National Organization for Women (NOW), the National Abortion Rights Action League (an organization that supports a woman's right to end a pregnancy), and the National Women's Political Caucus. She helped spark the women's movement in the 1960s.

### *Following her mother's advice*

Betty Naomi Goldstein was born on February 4, 1921 in Peoria, Illinois, the first of Harry and Miriam (Horwitz) Goldstein's three children. Her father worked his way up to become the owner of a jewelry store; her mother had to give up her job on a newspaper when she married. The loss of that career affected her mother deeply, and she urged young Betty to pursue the career in journalism that she herself was never able to achieve.

Betty went on to graduate from Smith College in 1942. She then studied psychology as a graduate student at the University of California at Berkeley. Like her mother, she did some work as a journalist, but unlike her mother she did not end her career to build a family. She married Carl Friedan in 1947, and during the years that she was raising their three children she continued to write articles. After her husband established his own advertising agency, the family moved to the suburbs. Although she continued to write, she felt unfulfilled by her role as wife and mother.

### *Others feel the same way*

In 1957 Friedan put together a list of questions to send to her Smith College classmates fifteen years after graduation. She received detailed replies from two hundred women, many of which revealed that these women were also unhappy with their lives. Friedan wrote an article based on her findings, but the editors of the women's magazines with whom she had previously worked refused to publish it. Those refusals only made her more determined to share her findings with the world. She decided to investigate the problem on a much larger scale and publish a book.



Betty Friedan.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

The result of her effort was *The Feminine Mystique*, which became an instant success, selling over three million copies.

Friedan began her book by describing what she called "the problem that has no name." In words that touched a nerve in thousands of middle-class American women, she wrote, "the problem lay buried, unspoken, for many years in the minds of American women. It was a strange stirring, a sense of dissatisfaction, a yearning [that is, a longing] that women suffered in the middle of the 20th century in the United States. Each suburban wife struggled with it alone. As she made the beds, shopped for groceries . . . she

was afraid to ask even of herself the silent question—'Is this all?'" Attacking the notion that "biology is destiny," under which women were expected to devote their lives to being wives and mothers and give up all other pursuits, Friedan called upon women to do whatever it took to discover other meaningful activities.

### *Organizing for change*

In 1966, three years after the book's publication, Friedan helped found the first major organization established since the 1920s devoted to women's rights. The organization was called the National Organization for Women (NOW), and Friedan became its first president. Under Friedan's leadership NOW worked for political reforms to secure legal equality for women. The organization was successful in achieving a number of important gains. It worked for the enforcement of Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which prevented employers from discriminating (denying opportunities to or providing unequal treatment to) against workers on the basis of sex. As a result of the organization's efforts, the Equal Opportunities Commission ruled that airlines could not fire female flight attendants because they married or reached the age of thirty-five and that job opportunities could not be advertised as only for male or female applicants.

NOW also lobbied for passage of the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA), which had been introduced in Congress by Alice Paul (1885–1977) in 1923 but had never passed. In addition, the organization called for government-funded day-care centers to be established "on the same basis as parks, libraries and public schools." NOW also worked to

make abortion (a woman's right to end a pregnancy) legal and to preserve abortion rights. Friedan was among the founders of the National Abortion Rights Action League in 1969. Finally, in 1973, the Supreme Court legalized abortion.

In 1970 President Richard Nixon (1913–1994) chose G. Harrold Carswell (1919–) to sit on the Supreme Court. Friedan made a strong stand against the president's choice. She argued that Carswell had defied the Civil Rights Act by ruling that employers had the right to deny jobs to women who had children. Carswell's appointment did not go through. That same year, at the annual meeting of NOW, Friedan called for a Women's Strike for Equality, which was held on August 26—the fiftieth anniversary of the day women gained the right to vote. Women across the country marked the day with demonstrations, marches, and speeches in forty major cities. Friedan led a parade of over ten thousand down Fifth Avenue in New York City. The following year Friedan was among the leaders who formed the National Women's Political Caucus.

### *Still an important voice for women*

As the women's movement grew and new leaders emerged with different concerns, Friedan's popularity decreased. Still, she remained an outspoken leader for many years. In 1974 she had an audience with Pope Paul VI in which she urged the Catholic Church to "come to terms with the full personhood of women." In 1977 she participated in the National Conference of Women in Houston, Texas, calling for an end to divisions in the movement and the creation of a new coalition (alliance) of women. Friedan

continued writing, teaching, and speaking throughout these years. In 1976 she published *It Changed My Life: Writings on the Women's Movement*, which was followed by her 1981 book, *The Second Stage*. In that publication Friedan called for a shift in the feminist movement, one that would address the needs of families and would allow both men and women to break free of the roles they had been pressured to fill in the past.

Friedan remains an important voice in women's struggle for equality. Also, in 1993, she wrote *The Fountain of Age*, turning her attention to the rights of the elderly and aging. In the *New York Times* she said, "Once you break through the mystique [air of mystery] of age and that view of the aged as objects of care and as problems for society, you can look at the reality of the new years of human life open to us." Betty Friedan's genuine interest in helping others improve and enjoy their lives is as strong today as it was when she first began writing.

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## ROBERT FROST

**Born:** March 26, 1874

**San Francisco, California**

**Died:** January 29, 1963

**Boston, Massachusetts**

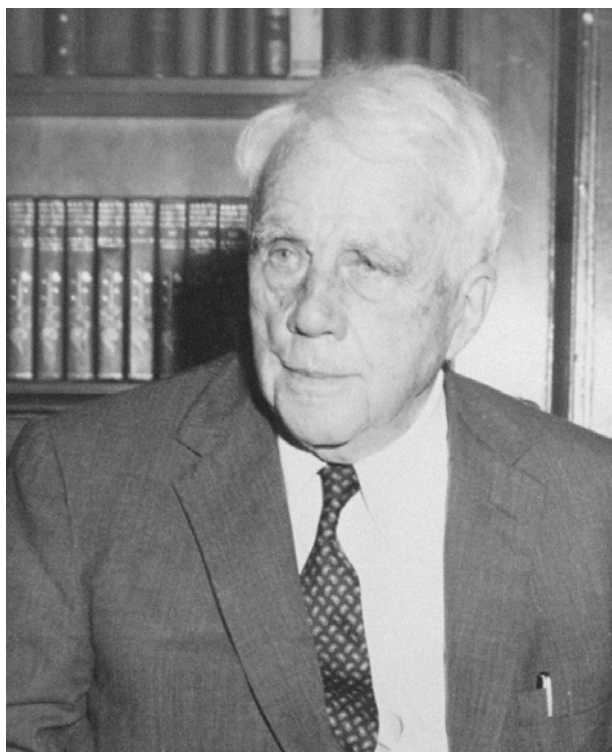
*American poet*

Robert Frost was a traditional American poet in an age of experimental art. He used New England expressions, characters, and settings, recalling the roots of American culture, to get at the common experience of all.

### ***The early years***

Robert Lee Frost was born in San Francisco, California, on March 26, 1874. His father, William, came from Maine and New Hampshire ancestry and had graduated from Harvard in 1872. He left New England and went to Lewistown, Pennsylvania, to teach. He married another teacher, Isabelle Moodie, a Scotswoman, and they moved to San Francisco, where the elder Frost became an editor and politician. Robert, their first child, was named for the Southern hero General Robert E. Lee (1807–1870).

When Frost's father died in 1884, his will requested that he be buried in New England. His wife and two children, Robert and Jeanie, went east for the funeral. Lacking funds to return to California, they settled in Salem, Massachusetts, where his grandfather had offered them a home. Eventually Mrs. Frost found a job teaching at a school.



Robert Frost.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

### ***Transplanted New Englander***

As a young boy, Robert loved his mother reading to him. Her influence introduced him to a large variety of literature, and from this he was inspired to become an excellent reader. He lacked enthusiasm for school in his elementary years, but became a serious student and graduated from Lawrence High School as valedictorian (top in his class) and class poet in 1892. He enrolled at Dartmouth College but soon left. He had become engaged to Elinor White, classmate and fellow valedictorian, who was completing her college education. Frost moved from job to job, working in mills, at newspaper reporting, and at teach-

ing, all the while writing poetry. In 1894 he sold his first poem, "My Butterfly," to the New York *Independent*. Overjoyed, he had two copies of a booklet of lyrics privately printed, one for his fiancée and one for himself. He delivered Elinor's copy in person but did not find her response to be enthusiastic. Thinking he had lost her, he tore up his copy and wandered south as far as the Dismal Swamp (from Virginia to North Carolina), even contemplating killing himself.

In 1895, however, Frost married Elinor and tried to make a career of teaching. He helped his mother run a small private school in Lawrence, Massachusetts, where his first son was born. He spent two years at Harvard, but undergraduate study proved difficult while raising a family. With a newborn daughter as well as a son to now raise, he decided to try chicken farming at Methuen, Massachusetts, on a farm purchased by his grandfather. In 1900, when his nervousness was diagnosed as a sign that he may possibly contract tuberculosis (a disease caused by bacteria that usually attacks the lungs but can also affect other organs in the body), he moved his poultry business to Derry, New Hampshire. There his first son soon died. In 1906 Frost was stricken with pneumonia (a disease that causes inflammation of the lungs) and almost died. A year later his fourth daughter died. This grief and suffering, as well as lesser frustrations in his personal and business life, turned Frost more and more to poetry. Once again he tried teaching, in Derry and then in Plymouth, New Hampshire.

### ***Creation of the poet***

In 1912, almost forty and with only a few poems published, Frost sold his farm and used

an allowance from his grandfather to go to England and gamble everything on poetry. The family settled on a farm in Buckinghamshire, and Frost began to write. Ezra Pound (1885–1972), another American poet, helped him get published in magazines, and he met many people in literature that helped to inspire and further expand his knowledge of poetry.

Frost published *A Boy's Will* (1913), and it was well received. Though it contains some nineteenth-century expressions, the words and rhythms are generally informal and subtly simple.

*North of Boston* (1914) is more objective, made up mainly of blank verse (poetry without rhyme) monologues (long speeches, plays, or entertainment given by a single person) and dramatic narratives (stories or descriptions of events). *North of Boston* added to the success of *A Boy's Will*, and the two volumes announced the two modes of Frost's best poetry, the lyric (a poem telling of love or other emotions) and the narrative. Although immediately established as a nature poet, he did not glorify nature. He addressed not only its loveliness but also the isolation, harshness, and pain its New England inhabitants had to endure.

### ***A public figure***

When the Frosts returned to the United States in 1915, *North of Boston* was a best-seller. Sudden fame embarrassed Frost, who had always avoided crowds. He withdrew to a small farm in Franconia, New Hampshire, but financial need soon saw him responding to demands for readings and lectures. In 1915 and 1916 he was a Phi Beta Kappa (an organization made up of college students and graduates who have achieved a high level of academic excellence in studies of liberal arts

and sciences) poet at Tufts College and at Harvard University. He conquered his shyness, developing a brief and simple speaking manner that made him one of the most popular performers in America and abroad.

In 1916 Frost published *Mountain Interval*, which brought together lyrics and narratives in his poetry. In 1917 Frost became one of the first poets-in-residence on an American campus. He taught at Amherst from 1917 to 1920, in 1918 receiving a master of arts, the first of many academic honors. The following year he moved his farm base to South Saftsbury, Vermont. In 1920 he cofounded the Bread Loaf School of English of Middlebury College, serving there each summer as lecturer and consultant. From 1921 to 1923 he was poet-in-residence at the University of Michigan.

Frost's *Selected Poems* and a new volume, *New Hampshire*, appeared in 1923. Frost received the first of four Pulitzer Prizes for the latter in 1924. Though the title poem does not present Frost at his best, the volume also contains such lyrics as "Fire and Ice," "Nothing Gold Can Stay," and "To Earthward."

Frost returned to Amherst for two years in 1923 and to the University of Michigan in 1925 and then settled at Amherst in 1926. In 1928 Frost published *West Running Brook*, in which he continued his use of tonal variations (changes in sound and rhythm) and a mixture of lyrics and narratives.

Frost visited England and Paris in 1928 and published his *Collected Poems* in 1930. In 1934 he suffered another painful loss with the death of his daughter Marjorie. He returned to Harvard in 1936 and in the same year published *A Further Range*.

***Later work and personal tragedies***

Because of Frost's weak lungs, his doctor ordered him south in 1936, and thereafter he spent his winters in Florida. Frost served on the Harvard staff from 1936 to 1937 and received an honorary doctorate. After his wife died of a heart attack in 1938, Frost resigned from the Amherst staff and sold his house. That same year he was elected to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College. In 1939 his second *Collected Poems* appeared, and he began a three-year stay at Harvard. In 1940 his only surviving son took his own life.

In 1945 Frost composed something new in *A Masque of Reason*, an updated version of the biblical story of Job. *A Masque of Mercy* (1947), was a companion verse drama (a dramatic poem) based on the biblical story of the prophet Jonah.

Frost's *Complete Poems* appeared in 1949, and in 1950 the U.S. Senate honored him on his seventy-fifth birthday. In 1957 he

returned to England to receive doctoral degrees from Oxford and Cambridge. On his eighty-fifth birthday the Senate again honored him. In 1961, at the inauguration of John F. Kennedy (1917–1963), Frost recited "The Gift Outright," the first time a poet had honored a presidential inauguration. A final volume, *In the Clearing*, appeared in 1962.

On January 29, 1963, Frost died in Boston, Massachusetts, of complications following an operation. He was buried in the family plot in Old Bennington, Vermont.

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## JOHN KENNETH GALBRAITH

**Born:** October 15, 1908

**Iona Station, Ontario, Canada**

*Canadian-born American scholar and economist*

John Kenneth Galbraith became a leading scholar and arguably the most famous economist in the second half of the twentieth century. His views are a severe criticism of the modern society that upholds personal achievement and material well-being over public interest and needs.

### *Galbraith's early years and education*

John Kenneth Galbraith was born on October 15, 1908, in Iona Station, Ontario, Canada, on the shores of Lake Erie, to a farming family of Scotch ancestry. His father, William, was involved in the politics of their community, supporting a liberal (open to change) view, and started bringing William to political rallies when he was about eight years old. His mother died before William, his brother, and his two sisters were in their teen years.

William attended school but his education was interrupted occasionally so he could work on the farm. He graduated from high school and then went on to study agricultural (having to do with land and farming) eco-



*John Kenneth Galbraith.*  
*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

nomics at the Ontario Agricultural College (then part of the University of Toronto; now, the University of Guelph) and graduated with honors in 1931. He went on to study agricultural economics at the University of California, receiving his doctorate in 1934. That same year he also began his long, though frequently interrupted, teaching career at Harvard University, where he eventually became an emeritus (a person who is retired but retains their title) professor.

#### **Public service**

Galbraith's academic career frequently gave way to public service. He worked in the

Department of Agriculture during the New Deal (President Franklin D. Roosevelt's [1882–1945] plan to help the United States recover from the Great Depression, a time of severe economic hardship in the 1930s) and in the Office of Price Administration and Civilian Supply during World War II (1939–45; a war between the Axis: Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). From his wartime work emerged *The Theory of Price Control* (1952), which, though not widely influential, contained some of the ideas of his major works.

After the end of the war in Europe, Galbraith worked with the Office of Strategic Services directing research on the effectiveness of the Allies' bombing of Germany. In 1947 he was one of the liberal founders of the Americans for Democratic Action.

After working prominently as a speechwriter in the presidential campaigns of Senator Adlai Stevenson (1900–1965), Galbraith went on to chair the Democratic Advisory Council during Dwight D. Eisenhower's (1890–1969) Republican administration. In 1956 he visited India, where his fascination with the country inspired his later works. He campaigned for President John F. Kennedy (1917–1962), and after Kennedy's victory he was named U.S. ambassador to India in the early 1960s. An outspoken critic of U.S. involvement in Vietnam, he campaigned on behalf of the presidential campaigns of Senators Eugene McCarthy (1916–) in 1968 and George McGovern (1922–) in 1972. Later he worked in the campaigns of Congressman Morris Udall (1922–1998) in 1976 and Senator Edward Kennedy (1932–) in 1980.

### **Published over twenty books**

Galbraith's major intellectual contributions lie in the trilogy (a series of three works that are related to one another, yet can stand on their own): *The Affluent Society* (1958), *The New Industrial State* (1967), and *Economics and the Public Purpose* (1973). Other than his main trilogy, and perhaps *The Theory of Price Control*, Galbraith's *American Capitalism: The Concept of Countervailing Power* (1952) stands out in importance. This book solidified Galbraith's position as a continuing spokesperson for the New Deal perspective in economics.

Along the way Galbraith published over twenty other books, including two novels, a coauthored book on Indian painting, memoirs (writings about one's personal experiences), travelogues (writings about travel), political essays, and several books on economic and intellectual history (the study of how creative thinking has influenced human development). He also collaborated (worked together) on and narrated (was the voice for the commentary) a Public Broadcasting System (PBS) television series, "The Age of Uncertainty."

### **The trilogy**

Galbraith's breakthrough as a best-selling author came with *The Affluent Society*. It examined the need of prosperous societies to use and produce more and more goods. The widespread attention guaranteed some hearing of his opposing ideas in the economics profession. Indeed, he was eventually honored with the American Economic Association's respected presidency.

In *The New Industrial State* Galbraith expanded his examination of the role of power in economic life. *The New Industrial*

*State* not only provided Galbraith with another best-selling book, it also extended once again the currency of Institutionalism (the effect that institutions have on the economy) economic thought. *The New Industrial State* gave a convincing explanation of the power structure involved in generating the problems in the 1960s of economic, social, and environmental cost of corporate monopoly powers, and thus found a very receptive audience among the rising Americans who opposed traditional standards and political activists.

*Economics and the Public Purpose*, the last work in Galbraith's major trilogy, continued the characteristic insistence on the role of power in economic life and the inability of conventional economic thought to deal adequately with this power.

### **Later years**

After the years Galbraith served in both the American and Canadian governments, he returned to scholarly activity, extensive travel, and writing, using Harvard University as his home base.

On August 9, 2000, President Bill Clinton (1946–) awarded a Presidential Medal of Freedom to Galbraith. The medal is the highest civilian honor and may be awarded only by a U.S. president to individuals who have made contributions "especially meritorious [something that should be honored or praised] to the security or national interests of the United States, to world peace or to cultural or other significant public or private endeavors."

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## GALEN

**Born:** c. 130

**Pergamon, Asia Minor**

**Died:** c. 200

**Rome (now in Italy)**

*Greek physician, anatomist, and philosopher*

The Greek physician Galen was one of the originators of the science of anatomy (the study of the structure of living things) and was probably the most important physician of all time. His surviving writings make up about half of all ancient writings on medicine.

### Early life

Various birth dates for Galen, from 127 to 132, have been suggested, but 130 is generally accepted. He was born at Pergamon, Asia Minor, into a wealthy family that valued education. Galen's father, Nicon, was a mathematician, architect, astronomer, and lover of Greek literature. He was Galen's only teacher up to the age of fourteen and a strong role model. In his book *On the Passions and Errors of the Soul* Galen says he was "fortunate in having the most devoted of fathers," but of

his mother he says "she was so very much prone to anger that sometimes she bit her handmaids; she constantly shrieked at my father and fought with him."

### Galen's education and training

In his fourteenth year Galen attended lectures given by many different philosophers (people who study and search for knowledge) in Pergamon. He learned something from all of them and thought it was wrong of people to blindly follow everything any one person might say. Later in life he urged physicians to take whatever is useful from wherever they find it and not to follow one school of thought, because that produces "an intellectual slave." Galen claimed to have studied day and night for four years. His first anatomy teacher was Satyrus, a pupil of Quintus, who through his students played a major role in the increase in activity in the field of anatomy that led to Galen's work.

Galen's father died in 150, and the following year Galen went to Smyrna (now Izmir, Turkey). While there he wrote his first treatise (argument containing facts and conclusions), *On the Movements of the Heart and Lung*. In 152 he went to Corinth and on to Alexandria, where he remained for four years studying with Numisianus, Quintus's most famous pupil. Although Galen admired Numisianus, he was not happy with the quality of the lectures or the abilities of his fellow students. During this time Galen produced a number of dictionaries of both literature and medicine. He also started a major work, *On Demonstration*. Unfortunately, no copy of this work survives.

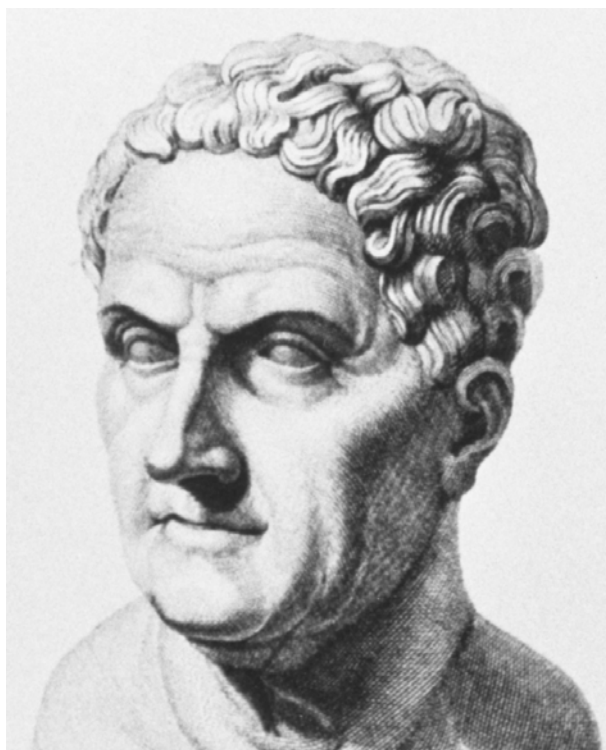
### Medical practice

In 157 Galen returned to Pergamon, where the next year he went to work as a physician to the gladiators (people who engaged in fights for public entertainment in ancient times). The injuries the gladiators suffered provided Galen with excellent opportunities to extend his knowledge of anatomy, surgery (operations to correct a disease or condition), and methods of treatment. While working among the gladiators, whose daily lives are described in his writings, Galen produced some of his most original work. In 163 he went to Rome, where his public anatomical demonstrations and his success as a physician made other Roman physicians jealous. Galen was only interested in passing on knowledge as widely and as publicly as possible.

Galen returned to Pergamon in 166. However, a severe outbreak of plague (a bacteria-caused disease that spreads quickly and can cause death) among the Roman troops in Aquileia in 168 caused the emperors Marcus Aurelius (c. 121–180) and Lucius Verus to send for him. In 169 Marcus made Galen physician to his son, Commodus (161–192). During this time Galen completed his major works, *On the Usefulness of the Parts of the Body* (in seventeen books) and *On the Natural Faculties*, as well as many other treatises. In 176 Galen returned to Rome permanently. He continued his writing, lecturing, and public demonstrations.

### Later years

In the winter of 191 and 192 a fire destroyed most of Galen's library. Yet in spite of this loss, information about his writings remains because he wrote two treatises on his own books and their order of production.



Galen.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Both works provide a wealth of information on his writings and are major sources of detail about his life. From 179 to his death around 200, Galen continued his medical research and writings, producing such major works as *The Method of Cure*. During his last years, however, he wrote more nonmedical works, such as *On the Equality of Sin and Punishment* and *The Slight Significance of Popular Honor and Glory*.

Galen's family name is unknown. Not wanting to cash in on the reputations of his ancestors, he used only his given name. Galen said of himself, "I have worked only for science and truth and for that reason I have

avoided placing my name at the beginning of my books.”

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## GALILEO

**Born:** February 15, 1564

**Pisa, Italy**

**Died:** January 8, 1642

**Arcetri, Florence, Italy**

*Italian scientist, author, and astronomer*

**T**he Italian scientist Galileo is famous for his contributions to astronomy, physics (the science that deals with matter and energy), and scientific thought.

### **Early life**

Galileo Galilei was born in Pisa, Italy, on February 15, 1564, the first child of Vincenzo Galilei, a merchant and a musician, and Giulia Ammannati. The family moved to Florence, Italy, in 1574. That year Galileo started his formal education in the nearby monastery (house for people who have taken religious vows) of Vallombrosa. Seven

years later he studied medicine at the University of Pisa.

In 1583 Galileo developed new interests and began his studies in mathematics and physics, which ended his medical studies. In Pisa at that time there was only one notable science teacher, Francisco Buonamico, who taught the ideas of Aristotle (c. 384–c. 322 B.C.E.). Galileo seems to have been an eager follower of Buonamico, as shown by Galileo’s *Juvenilia*, dating from 1584, which mostly describes Aristotle’s scientific ideas. Because of financial difficulties, Galileo had to leave the University of Pisa in 1585 before earning his degree.

### **Early work**

Back in Florence, Galileo searched for a teaching position and continued to study mathematics and physics. He published two works that made his name well known. One was *The Little Balance*, describing the hydrostatic (relating to the forces produced by fluids at rest) principles of balancing; the other was a study of the center of gravity of various solids. His rising reputation gained him a teaching post at the University of Pisa in 1589. Galileo had to support his mother, brothers, and sisters after his father’s death in 1591, so he found a better position in 1592 at the University of Padua, part of the Venetian Republic. In 1604 Galileo declared that he was a supporter of the theory of Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543), who stated that the earth and other planets revolved around the sun.

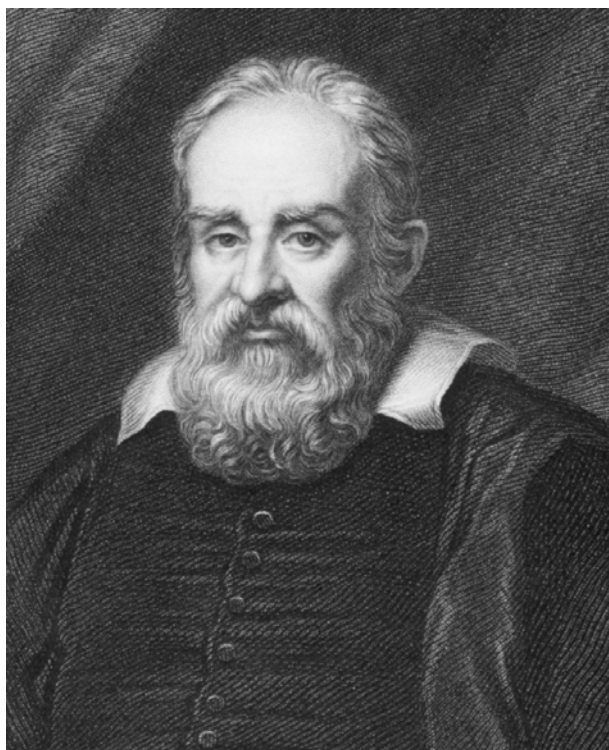
In 1606 the publication of *The Operations of the Geometrical and Military Compass*, revealed Galileo’s skill with experiments. In this booklet he also defended himself against

criticism from several sources. In mid-1609 Galileo learned about the success of some Dutch eyeglass makers when they combined several lenses into what later would be called a telescope (an instrument for viewing distant objects). He went right to work, and on August 25 he presented to the Venetian Senate a telescope as his own invention. This led the University of Padua to give him a lifetime contract, but resentment followed when it was learned that Galileo was not the original inventor.

### ***Astronomical works***

Galileo's telescope had a magnifying power of about forty. Sometime in the fall of 1609 he turned the telescope toward the sky. Within a few months Galileo had gathered astonishing evidence about mountains on the moon, about moons circling the planet Jupiter, and about an incredibly large number of stars. In March of 1610 all these sensational items were printed in Venice, Italy, under the title *The Starry Messenger*, a booklet that took the world of science by storm. The view of the heavens changed greatly, and so did Galileo's life.

Galileo was very ambitious and decided to secure a position for himself as a mathematics expert in Florence at the court of Cosimo II. In 1610 he left his wife, Marina Gamba, and his family behind in Padua. In 1612 his *Discourse on Bodies in Water* was published. In it he revealed his discovery of the phases of the planet Venus, but this work was also the source of heated disputes. In 1613 Galileo published his observations of sunspots (dark spots that appear on the sun's surface from time to time), which led to bitter arguments with Christopher Scheiner (1573–



*Galileo.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

1650) of the University of Ingolstadt, Germany, whose observations of sunspots had already been published in 1612.

### ***Condemned by the Church***

Galileo's real aim was to publish a complete description of the universe and of the new physics it required. A major problem was that many people believed that, according to the Bible, the sun and other planets moved around a motionless earth. With the help of some religious experts, Galileo produced essays explaining and defending his point of view in the form of letters, which ranked among the best religious writings of those

times. As the letters circulated widely, a showdown with Church authorities seemed certain.

In 1616 the Church ordered Galileo not to “hold, teach, and defend in any manner whatsoever, in words or in print” the theory of Copernicus regarding the motion of the Earth. Galileo obeyed the order partly to make life easier for himself and partly because he remained a devoted Catholic. In 1624, though, after meeting with Pope Urban VIII (1568–1644) and sensing that anger over his writings had lessened, Galileo decided to pursue his work again.

Galileo spent six years writing his *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems*. Published in 1632, it contains criticism of the supposed perfection of the universe as claimed by Aristotle. It discusses how the rotation of the earth helps explain different occurrences in space. The orbital motion of the earth around the sun is also debated. The *Dialogue* was a huge success. The fact that some of his ideas opposed each other did not take away from the popularity of the work.

### **Condemned again**

The *Dialogue* proved that Galileo held, taught, and defended the theories of Copernicus, so he was called back to Rome to appear before Church leaders. The proceedings lasted from the fall of 1632 to the summer of 1633. During that time Galileo was allowed to stay at the home of the Florentine representative to Rome. He was never subjected to physical threats. However, he was finally ordered to publicly renounce (state that he did not believe) the idea that the Earth moved.

Galileo was then confined under house arrest to his home in Arcetri, Italy. He was not

allowed to have any visitors nor have any of his works printed outside of Italy. Both orders were ignored. In 1634 a French translation of one of his old papers on mechanics (the study of forces and their effect on matter) was published, and in Holland the *Dialogue* was published in Latin in 1635.

### **Later years**

In 1638 Galileo's *Two New Sciences* was printed in Leiden, Holland. It gave a geometrical (relating to points, lines, angles, and surfaces) description of motion, partly because such an approach led to a close match with known data. Galileo believed that the universe was structured along the patterns of geometry, the product of a Creator who had planned everything according to weight, measure, and number.

This religious belief is possibly Galileo's greatest quality. It was best stated in the *Dialogue*, when he described the human mind as being the most excellent product of the Creator because it could recognize mathematical truths. Galileo spent his last years partially blind. He died on January 8, 1642.

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## GEORGE GALLUP

**Born:** November 18, 1901

**Jefferson, Iowa**

**Died:** July 27, 1984

**Tschingel, Switzerland**

*American professor, researcher, author, and organization founder*

George Gallup was a pioneer in the field of public opinion polling. He developed methods for perfecting the selection of sample populations (a small group that resembles the population as a whole), interviewing techniques, and formulation of questions. He also was a teacher and a supporter of educational reform.

### *Life in Iowa*

George Horace Gallup was born on November 18, 1901, in the small town of Jefferson, Iowa. He was the son of George Henry Gallup, a farmer as well as a real estate dealer in agricultural land, and Nettie Davenport. As a teenager, Gallup worked as the manager of a dairy farm and used his salary to start a newspaper at his high school. All of young Gallup's higher education took place at the University of Iowa, where he received a bachelor's degree in 1923, a master's in 1925, and a doctorate in 1928. On December 27, 1925, he married Ophelia Smith Miller. They had two sons, Alec Miller and

George Horace Jr., who carried on their father's polling organization; and a daughter, Julia Gallup Laughlin.

### *From teaching to polling*

Gallup's career as a teacher began after he received a bachelor's degree and stayed to teach journalism and psychology from 1923 to 1929 at the University of Iowa. He then moved to Drake University at Des Moines, Iowa, where he served as head of the Department of Journalism until 1931. That year, he moved to Northwestern University in Evanston, Illinois, as a professor of journalism and advertising. The next year he moved to New York City to join the advertising agency of Young and Rubicam as director of research (later as vice president from 1937 to 1947). From 1933 to 1937 he was also professor of journalism at Columbia University, but he had to give up this position shortly after he formed his own polling company, the American Institute of Public Opinion (Gallup Poll), in 1935, where he concentrated on attitude research. He was also the founder (1939) and president of the Audience Research Institute.

Apart from these business positions Gallup was active in professional and public service groups. He was president of the International Association of Public Opinion Institutes, from 1947 to 1984, and of the National Municipal League, from 1953 to 1956, and chairman of the All-America Cities Award Committee, a jury which selects All-American cities on the basis of intelligent and effective citizen activity. He founded Quill and Scroll, an international honor society for high school journalists, and served as head of its board of trustees.



George Gallup.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

### ***A pioneer in polling***

By 1944 George Gallup was widely recognized as one of the major pioneers in public opinion polling and had participated in the creation of methods to achieve a high degree of accuracy in discovering the public's opinions on a wide variety of issues. Gallup had firm beliefs in the validity of polling. In fact, he believed that polls made a positive contribution to the democratic process.

### ***Always an educator***

George Gallup was best known for creating a business of discovering people's opinion

on issues. But he was also an educator—and this experience, plus his study of the attitudes of millions of people, led him to develop a set of basic principles of education which he described in *The Miracle Ahead* (1964). The collective views of people, he recognized, are usually sound and logical; people are not led by their emotions as some people claim. However, their thoughts about issues are not deep enough. To achieve greater and more rapid progress, a new education system must be created to enhance our mental powers. Gallup was particularly positive toward the case history method of teaching, which offers “perhaps the best method that mankind has yet found to transmit wisdom as opposed to knowledge.”

George Gallup was involved in his career right up until his death. He was traveling in Tschingel, Switzerland, when he suffered a massive heart attack on July 26, 1984, and died the next day. He was eighty-three years old.

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## INDIRA GANDHI

**Born:** November 19, 1917

**Allahabad, India**

**Died:** October 31, 1984

**New Delhi, India**

*Indian politician and prime minister*

Indira Gandhi, a prime minister of India, was the most effective and powerful politician of her day in that country. Considered a hero by her supporters and cursed by her enemies, who later assassinated her, Indira Gandhi paved the way for democracy in India during the twentieth century.

### *Early life*

Indira Priyadarshini Gandhi was born in the northern Indian city of Allahabad on November 19, 1917. She was the only child of Jawaharlal Nehru, an important figure in the nationalist movement, a movement devoted to the improvement of culture within the nation. Later he became India's first prime minister. Because of many of his political beliefs, Jawaharlal, along with much of his family, was often jailed for supporting Mohandas Gandhi's (1869–1948) nationalist movement. Mohandas Gandhi (no relation to Indira) opposed the dominant rule of Great Britain over India. This association placed Indira at the center of India's struggle for freedom. Her family's fight for freedom made Indira's upbringing shaky. Her father was often absent from being jailed, and her mother was bed-ridden from tuberculosis, a terrible disease affecting the lungs and bones. Because of her father's stand against institutions run by the British government, Indira's early schooling was not consistent. For a while she was taught at home. Later she attended an academy run by a poet-philosopher.

Shortly after her mother's death in 1936, Indira enrolled at Santiniketan University and Somerville College, Oxford University, in England. She married Feroze Gandhi (also no relation to Mohandas Gandhi) in March 1942, despite both family's objections, as the

two were not part of the same social status or religions—he was a descendent of Iranian immigrants; she was Hindu. Feroze Gandhi became a lawyer and newspaper executive as well as an independent member of Parliament. Shortly after their marriage, they were both imprisoned for a period of thirteen months for their part in the nationalist political demonstrations against British rule. During her imprisonment Indira taught reading and writing to prisoners. Feroze Gandhi died in 1960. They had two sons, Rajiv and Sanjay.

### *Indian independence*

On August 15, 1947, Great Britain released their control over India and the Indian Empire was quickly divided into two countries, today known as India and Pakistan. No longer under British control, India erupted into violence. Thousands of members of rival religious groups, the Hindus and the Moslems, were killed during riots. During this time Indira served as her father's hostess and housekeeper. Since her father had never remarried after his wife's death in 1936, Indira took charge of her father's large mansion and began helping him in political matters. Together they worked towards peace, arranging a meeting of Hindu and Moslem religious leaders in New Dehli, India.

Throughout the period of Indira Gandhi's political association with her father, she focused on social welfare work, particularly children's welfare. The Indian National Congress had led the country to freedom and had then become its major political party. She had joined the Congress in 1938, and later served as a member of its Youth Advisory Board and chairman of its Woman's Department. Prior to



Indira Gandhi.

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

assuming the presidency of the organization in 1959, Gandhi was named to its twenty-one-member executive Working Committee. She was elected with more votes than any other candidate to the powerful eleven-member Central Election Board, which named candidates and planned electoral strategy.

#### ***As prime minister***

In June 1964, following her father's death, Gandhi became minister for information and broadcasting under Prime Minister Lal Bahadur Shastri (1904–1966), where she helped start an Indian television system. In January 1966, when Shastri died, Gandhi

was elected leader of the Congress Party in Parliament (the governing body of India) and became the third prime minister of independent India.

Gandhi assumed office at a critical time in the history of the country. A truce had ended the 1965 war between India and Pakistan only a week earlier. The nation was in the midst of a two-year drought, resulting in severe food shortages and a deepening economic crisis with rising prices and rising unemployment. The political situation in India was equally as effected. In the fourth general elections of 1967 the Congress retained majority control (and reelected Gandhi as its leader), but lost control in half the state legislatures. After twenty years of political dominance, the Congress Party was experiencing serious difficulty.

#### ***A government divided***

Gandhi immediately set about reorganizing the party to make it a more effective instrument of administration and national development. Her goal was to achieve a wider measure of social and economic justice for all Indians. As her left-of-center policies (slightly liberal, or supporting civil liberties and social progress) became clear, the Congress Party split, with the younger, more liberal elements rallying around Gandhi and the older, more conservative party leaders opposing her. This division came to a head in July 1969 when she nationalized (brought under the control of government) the country's fourteen leading banks in a highly popular move meant to make credit more available to agriculture and to small industry.

The split was formalized when Gandhi's candidate for the presidency of India, V. V.

Giri, won over the party's official nominee. Although Gandhi took 228 members of Parliament with her into the New Congress, this was not a majority in the 521-member house, and she held power only with support from more liberal parties. In December 1970, when Gandhi failed to get the necessary support to abolish, or end, the privileges of the former Indian princes, she called on the president to dissolve Parliament. Midterm elections were set for March 1971, one full year ahead of schedule.

A coalition, or alliance, of three parties of the right and an anti-Congress socialist party opposed Gandhi, who made alliances with liberal parties as well as some regional parties. Her platform was essentially one of achieving social and economic change more rapidly in an effort to improve the quality of life of India's people. Her party won a massive victory with over a two-thirds majority in Parliament.

### ***End of her career***

Gandhi faced major problems in the areas of food production, population control, land reform, regulation of prices, unemployment, and industrial production. The problems were increased by the arrival in India of almost ten million refugees, who were uprooted as a result of the civil unrest in East Pakistan. In November 1971 Indian troops crossed into East Pakistan to fight Pakistani forces. A month later Gandhi announced recognition of the Bangladesh government set up by East Pakistani rebel leaders. On December 16 Pakistan's commander in East Pakistan surrendered to India.

In the state elections held in India in March 1972, Gandhi's New Congress Party scored the most overwhelming victory in the

history of independent India. However, her opponent accused her of violating election laws, and a high court supported the charge in 1975. Because of this development, as well as domestic unrest, Gandhi declared a state of emergency and postponed elections. In the 1977 elections Gandhi and her party suffered major defeats and Gandhi eventually lost her seat and the post of prime minister.

The following year Gandhi headed the Congress Party as she returned to Parliament. In 1979 she again became prime minister. In efforts to prove India's nonalliance in the global community, she visited both the United States and the U.S.S.R., the former Soviet Union, which consisted of Russia and several smaller states. Internally, riots broke out among Muslim, Hindu, and Sikh religious sects, or groups. Sikhs, looking to separate themselves from India, secured weapons within their sacred Golden Temple in Amritsar, and assumed religious protection. Gandhi ordered government troops to storm the temple, leading to many Sikh deaths. This led to her assassination at her residence on October 31, 1984, by her own Sikh security guards. In death, Gandhi remains a symbol of courage and democracy in one of the world's most populated countries.

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## MOHANDAS GANDHI

**Born:** October 2, 1869

**Porbandar, India**

**Died:** January 30, 1948

**Delhi, India**

*Indian religious leader, reformer, and lawyer*

Mohandas Gandhi was an Indian revolutionary and religious leader who used his religious power for political and social reform. Although he held no governmental office, he was the main force behind the second-largest nation in the world's struggle for independence.

### *Early years*

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was born on October 2, 1869, in Porbandar, India, a seacoast town in the Kathiawar Peninsula north of Bombay, India. His wealthy family was from one of the higher castes (Indian social classes). He was the fourth child of Karamchand Gandhi, prime minister to the raja (ruler) of three small city-states, and Purtlibai, his fourth wife. Gandhi described his mother as a deeply religious woman who attended temple (a place for religious worship) service daily. Mohandas was a small, quiet boy who disliked sports and was only an average student. At the age of thirteen he did not even know in advance that he

was to marry Kasturbai, a girl his own age. The childhood ambition of Mohandas was to study medicine, but as this was considered beneath his caste, his father persuaded him to study law instead. After his marriage Mohandas finished high school and tutored his wife.

In September 1888 Gandhi went to England to study. Before leaving India, he promised his mother he would try not to eat meat. He was an even stricter vegetarian while away than he had been at home. In England he studied law but never completely adjusted to the English way of life. He became a lawyer in 1891 and sailed for Bombay. He attempted unsuccessfully to practice law in Rajkot and Bombay, then for a brief period served as lawyer for the prince of Porbandar.

### *South Africa: the beginning*

In 1893 Gandhi accepted an offer from a firm of Muslims to represent them legally in Pretoria, the capital of Transvaal in the Union of South Africa. While traveling in a first-class train compartment in Natal, South Africa, a white man asked Gandhi to leave. He got off the train and spent the night in a train station meditating. He decided then to work to end racial prejudice. He had planned to stay in South Africa for only one year, but this new cause kept him in the country until 1914. Shortly after the train incident he called his first meeting of Indians in Pretoria and attacked racial discrimination (treating a certain group of people differently) by whites. This launched his campaign for improved legal status for Indians in South Africa, who at that time suffered the same discrimination as black people.

In 1896 Gandhi returned to India to take his wife and sons to Africa and to inform his

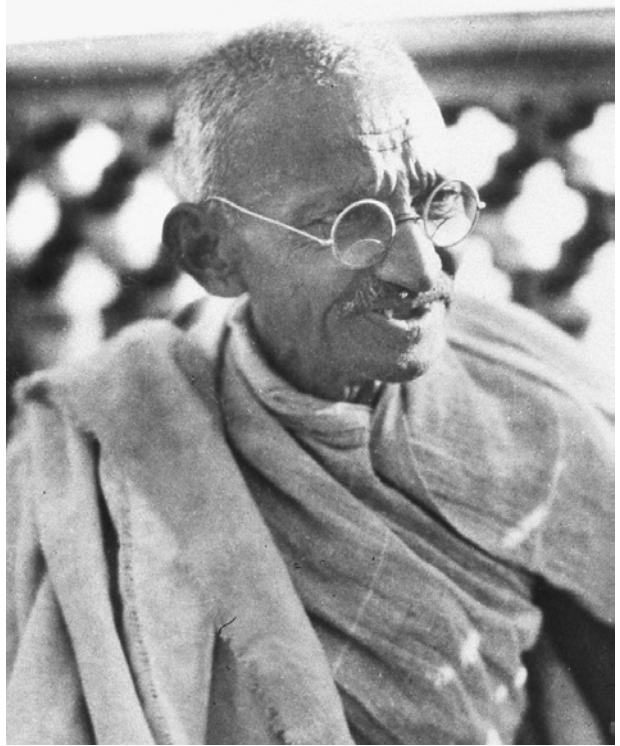
countrymen of the poor treatment of Indians there. News of his speeches filtered back to Africa, and when Gandhi returned, an angry mob threw stones and attempted to lynch (to murder by mob action and without lawful trial) him.

### *Spiritual development*

Gandhi began to do day-to-day chores for unpaid boarders of the lowest castes and encouraged his wife to do the same. He decided to buy a farm in Natal and return to a simpler way of life. He began to fast (not eat). In 1906 he became celibate (not engaging in sexual intercourse) after having fathered four sons, and he preached Brahmacharya (vow of celibacy) as a means of birth control and spiritual purity. He also began to live a life of voluntary poverty.

During this period Gandhi developed the concept of Satyagraha, or soul force. He wrote: "Satyagraha is not predominantly civil disobedience, but a quiet and irresistible pursuit of truth." Truth was throughout his life Gandhi's chief concern, as reflected in the subtitle of his *Autobiography: The Story of My Experiments with Truth*. Gandhi also developed a basic concern for the means used to achieve a goal.

In 1907 Gandhi urged all Indians in South Africa to defy a law requiring registration and fingerprinting of all Indians. For this activity he was imprisoned for two months but released when he agreed to voluntary registration. During Gandhi's second stay in jail he read the American essayist Henry David Thoreau's (1817–1862) essay "Civil Disobedience," which left a deep impression on him. He was also influenced by his correspondence with Russian novelist Leo Tolstoy



Mohandas Gandhi.

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(1828–1910) in 1909–1910 and by John Ruskin's (1819–1900) *Unto This Last*.

Gandhi decided to create a place for civil resisters to live in a group environment. He called it the Tolstoy Farm. By this time he had abandoned Western dress for traditional Indian garb. Two of his final legal achievements in Africa were a law declaring Indian (rather than only Christian) marriages valid, and the end of a tax on former indentured (bound to work and unable to leave for a specific period of time) Indian labor. Gandhi regarded his work in South Africa as completed.

By the time Gandhi returned to India in January 1915, he had become known as “Mahatmaji,” a title given him by the poet Rabindranath Tagore (1861–1941). This title means “great soul.” Gandhi knew how to reach the masses and insisted on their resistance and spiritual growth. He spoke of a new, free Indian individual, telling Indians that India’s cages were self-made.

### ***Disobedience and return to old values***

The repressive Rowlatt Acts of 1919 (a set of laws that allowed the government to try people accused of political crimes without a jury) caused Gandhi to call a general hartal, or strike (when workers refuse to work in order to obtain rights from their employers), throughout the country. But he called it off when violence occurred against Englishmen. Following the Amritsar Massacre of some four hundred Indians, Gandhi responded by not cooperating with British courts, stores, and schools. The government agreed to make reforms.

Gandhi began urging Indians to make their own clothing rather than buy British goods. This would create employment for millions of Indian peasants during the many idle months of the year. He cherished the ideal of economic independence for each village. He identified industrialization (increased use of machines) with materialism (desire for wealth) and felt that it stunted man’s growth. Gandhi believed that the individual should be placed ahead of economic productivity.

In 1921 the Congress Party, a group of various nationalist (love of one’s own nation and cultural identity) groups, again voted for a nonviolent disobedience campaign. Gandhi had come to realize that India’s reliance on

Britain had made India more helpless than ever. In 1922 Gandhi was tried and sentenced to six years in prison, but he was released two years later for an emergency appendectomy (surgery to remove an inflamed appendix). This was the last time the British government tried Gandhi.

### ***Fasting and the protest march***

One technique Gandhi used frequently was the fast. He firmly believed that Hindu-Muslim unity was natural and he undertook a twenty-one-day fast to bring the two communities together. He also fasted during a strike of mill workers in Ahmedabad. Another technique he developed was the protest march. In response to a British tax on all salt used by Indians, a severe hardship on the peasants, Gandhi began his famous twenty-four-day “salt march” to the sea. Several thousand marchers walked 241 miles to the coast in protest of the unfair law.

Another cause Gandhi supported was improving the status of members of the lower castes, or Harijans. On September 20, 1932, Gandhi began a fast for the Harijans, opposing a British plan for a separate voting body for them. As a result of Gandhi’s fast, some temples were opened to exterior castes for the first time in history.

Gandhi devoted the years 1934 through 1939 to the promotion of making fabric, basic education, and making Hindi the national language. During these years he worked closely with Jawaharlal Nehru (1889–1964) in the Congress Working Committee. Despite differences of opinion, Gandhi designated Nehru his successor, saying, “I know this, that when I am gone he will speak my language.”



### **World War II and beyond**

England's entry into World War II (1939–45; when the United States, France, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan) brought India in without its consent. Because Britain had made no political compromises satisfactory to nationalist leaders, in August 1942 Gandhi proposed not to help in the war effort. Gandhi, Nehru, and other Congress Party leaders were imprisoned, touching off violence throughout India. When the British attempted to place the blame on Gandhi, he fasted for three weeks in jail. He contracted malaria (a potentially fatal disease spread by mosquitoes) in prison and was released on May 6, 1944.

When Gandhi emerged from prison, he sought to stop the creation of a separate Muslim state of Pakistan, which Muhammad Ali Jinnah (1876–1948) was demanding. Jinnah declared August 16, 1946, a "Direct Action Day." On that day, and for several days following, communal killings left five thousand dead and fifteen thousand wounded in Calcutta alone. Violence spread through the country.

Extremely upset, Gandhi went to Bengal, saying, "I am not going to leave Bengal until the last embers of trouble are stamped out." But while he was in Calcutta forty-five hundred more people were killed in Bihar. Gandhi, now seventy-seven, warned that he would fast to death unless Biharis reformed. Either Hindus and Muslims would learn to live together or he would die in the attempt. The situation there calmed, but rioting continued elsewhere.

### **Drive for independence**

In March 1947 the last viceroy, Lord Mountbatten (1900–1979), arrived in India

with instructions to take Britain out of India by June 1948. The Congress Party by this time had agreed to separation, since the only alternative appeared to be continuation of British rule. Gandhi, despairing because his nation was not responding to his plea for peace and brotherhood, refused to participate in the independence celebrations on August 15, 1947. On September 1, 1947, after an angry Hindu mob broke into the home where he was staying in Calcutta, Gandhi began to fast, "to end only if and when sanity returns to Calcutta." Both Hindu and Muslim leaders promised that there would be no more killings, and Gandhi ended his fast.

On January 13, 1948, Gandhi began his last fast in Delhi, praying for Indian unity. On January 30, as he was attending prayers, he was shot and killed by Nathuram Godse, a thirty-five-year-old editor of a Hindu Mahasabha extremist newspaper in Poona.

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## GABRIEL GARCÍA MÁRQUEZ

**Born:** March 6, 1928

**Aracataca, Colombia**

*Colombian novelist, short-story writer,  
and journalist*

**G**abriel García Márquez is a Colombian novelist, short-story writer, and journalist whose works have earned him the reputation of being one of the greatest living writers in Spain and Latin America.

### *Education and newspaper jobs*

Born in Aracataca, Colombia, on March 6, 1928, Gabriel García Márquez was the oldest of Gabriel Eligio García and Luisa Santiaga Márquez Iguarán's twelve children. His father was a telegraph operator. The family was poor, and García Márquez spent the first eight years of his life with his maternal grandparents. They were the most important and influential people in his life, and he loved listening to them tell stories about Colombia's old days.

García Márquez received his early education from the Liceo Nacional of Zipaquirá, Colombia, from which he graduated in 1946. He then entered the University of Bogotá to study law. (He studied for several years but did not enjoy it and never finished.) He wrote his first story in 1947, and it was published in the newspaper *El Espectador*. Over the next few years he had several more stories published in newspapers. In 1948 civil war broke out in the country and García Márquez moved to Cartagena, Colombia, where he worked as a journalist for the newspaper *El Universal*. In 1950 he

moved to Barranquilla, Colombia, where he wrote for *El Herald*. In 1954 he returned to Bogotá and worked at *El Espectador* while writing short stories on the side.

### *Early works*

Between 1955 and 1960 several published works had begun to establish García Márquez's fame in the Spanish-speaking world. *La hojarasca* (1955), a short novel, is set in the made-up town of Macondo in the swampy coastal area of northeastern Colombia known as the Ciénaga. The story reflects the changes the twentieth century brought to the life of this sleepy country town. Much of García Márquez's work centers around funerals. In *La hojarasca* mourners who knew the dead man in life think about the past, each from his own point of view. Three different people—an old colonel, his daughter, and her son—tell their story. The dead man, a doctor and former friend of the colonel, had committed suicide. The narrators do not entirely explain what happened, but in the course of each story much of the past history of the village of Macondo is revealed. A strong feeling of doom fills the novel.

Macondo and the Buendía family were further developed in *El coronel no tiene quien le escriba* (1961; *Nobody Writes to the Colonel and Other Stories*). The next collection of short stories, *Los funerales de la Mama Grande* (1962), strengthened García Márquez's growing reputation. The publication of *Cien años de soledad* (1967; *One Hundred Years of Solitude*) created a stir when it sold over one hundred thousand copies in fifteen editions in Buenos Aires, Argentina, in 1969.

The story of *Cien años de soledad* describes the rise and fall of a village as seen in

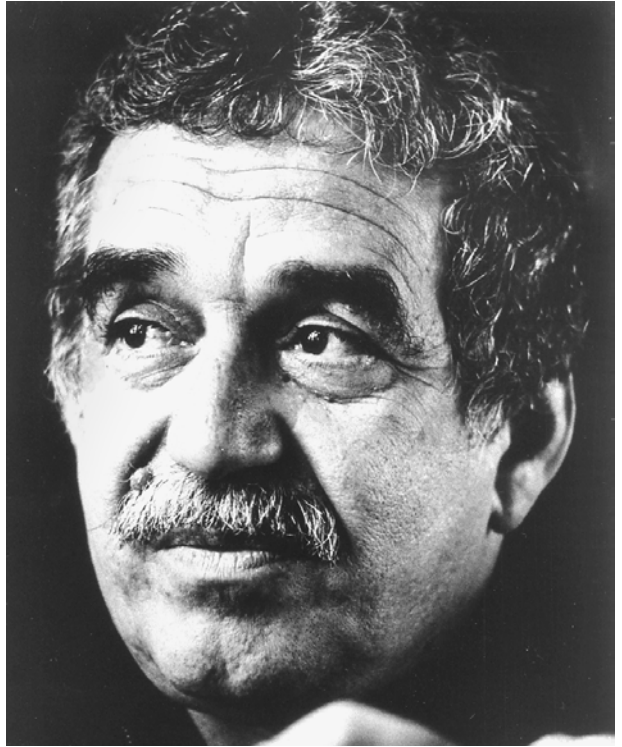
the lives of five generations of one family. It ends with flood and drought, which comes as the last living Buendía figures out the ancient predictions of doom and learns that “races condemned to 100 years of solitude did not have a second opportunity on earth.” The family is meant to represent Colombia, and through extension, both South America and the rest of the world. Pablo Neruda (1904–1973), the famous Chilean poet, praised *Cien años de soledad*, and it is generally considered García Márquez’s masterpiece.

### Other works

García Márquez considered his next novel, *El otoño del patriarca* (1975; *The Autumn of the Patriarch*), “a perfect integration (combination) of journalism and literature.” García Márquez continued to write novels, short stories, essays, and film scripts. In 1982 he was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature. In 1983 he wrote the film script *Erendira*, adapted from his 1972 novella (short novel) *La increíble y triste historia de la cándida Erendira y su abuela desalmada* (*Innocent Erendira and Her Heartless Grandmother*).

García Márquez’s other famous novel, *El amor en los tiempos del cólera* (*Love in the Time of Cholera*) was written in 1985 (with an English translation published in 1988). This novel is an exploration of love and the relationship between aging, death, and decay. After *Cholera* he published the novels *El general en su laberinto* (1989; *The General in His Labyrinth*, 1990), *Doce cuentos peregrinos* (1992; *Strange Pilgrims*, 1993), and *Of Love and Other Demons* (1994).

García Márquez’s fictional blend of history, politics, real social situations, and fantasy (something made up) has given rise to the term “magical realism.” The use of magi-



Gabriel García Márquez.

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cal realism was often imitated by other Latin American authors, especially Isabel Allende (1942–). García Márquez’s need to tell a story drives his writing. In the July 1997 issue of *Harper’s*, García Márquez writes, “The best story is not always the first one but rather the one that is told better.”

### Later years

In 1999 García Márquez returned to journalism with the purchase of *Cambio*, a weekly newspaper in Colombia. He rolled up his sleeves and went to work trying to improve both the paper’s content and its sales. His duties ranged from interviewing

heads of state and business leaders to editing copy and photographs. García Márquez told the *New York Times* that he wanted his paper's young reporters "to tell a story, to go back to the time when a reader could know what happened as if he were there himself."

Later that year García Márquez was diagnosed with cancer and disappeared from public life. Rumors began to circulate that he was dying, aided by a poem appearing on the Internet supposedly written by him as a sort of farewell. In December 2000 García Márquez gave an interview in which he denied writing the poem and said that he had been keeping a low profile because he was busy writing his autobiography (the story of one's own life), which he decided to do after learning that he had cancer. In March 2001 García Márquez announced that he would never set foot in Spain again unless a new European Union rule requiring Colombian citizens to obtain visas (identification documents permitting travel into foreign countries) before entering Spain was withdrawn.

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## JUDY GARLAND

**Born:** June 10, 1922  
Grand Rapids, Minnesota

**Died:** June 21, 1969

**London, England**

*American actress and singer*

Judy Garland starred in films, musicals, and on the concert stage. A superstar who never lost her appeal, she is best remembered for her performance in *The Wizard of Oz* and for the song "Over the Rainbow."

### **Becoming Judy Garland**

Judy Garland was born Frances Ethel Gumm on June 10, 1922, in Grand Rapids, Minnesota. She was the last of three daughters of former vaudeville (traveling variety entertainment) actors Frank and Ethel Gumm. Judy began her show business career before she was three years old at her father's theater, the New Grand Theater. The family soon moved to Los Angeles, California, and to better climates than those found in remote northern Minnesota. By age six she was a veteran performer, appearing with her two older sisters in a vaudeville act. After her father's health declined, the sisters' act soon became the primary source of income for the family.

Mistakenly billed as "The Glum Sisters" in 1931, the sisters, at the suggestion of a fellow performer, changed their stage name to Garland (the name of a then-popular drama critic). Shortly thereafter, at her own insistence, Garland changed her first name from Frances to Judy (after a popular song of the day).

### **Blossoming career**

In 1935 the head of MGM (Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer), a major Hollywood studio, heard Judy Garland sing and quickly signed her to a contract. There was some uncer-

tainty at the studio on how to use her talents. A year passed before she made her first MGM film, a two-reeler. Her first appearance in a feature did not come until 1937, when she was loaned to another major studio, Twentieth Century-Fox. That same year at an MGM party for its star Clark Gable (1901–1960), Garland was a hit singing a specialty number, “Dear Mr. Gable,” which was adapted from the well-known standard “You Made Me Love You.” As a result she and the song were used for the 1937 feature *Broadway Melody of 1938*. Again she earned praise within the industry.

MGM quickly put Garland into more films, each spotlighting her singing. In her next film, *Thoroughbreds Don’t Cry* (1937), she was cast with another childhood star, Mickey Rooney (1920–), with whom she would later appear in eight films. MGM paired them in some of the Andy Hardy films, a series starring Rooney as an “average” American teenager. The duo performed in such movies as *Babes in Arms* (1939), *Strike Up The Band* (1940), *Babes on Broadway* (1941), and *Girl Crazy* (1943). Her most memorable film role, and the one that made her a household name, came in 1939 with *The Wizard of Oz*. She won a special Oscar as “best juvenile performer of the year” for her role as Dorothy. The film also provided her with the song with which she was identified for the rest of her life—“Over the Rainbow.”

During the 1940s Garland graced a number of outstanding musicals, including *Meet Me in St. Louis* (1944), *The Harvey Girls* (1946), and *Easter Parade* (1948). She was superb in a non-singing role in *The Clock*, a pleasant drama about a young girl and a serviceman on leave.



Judy Garland.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

### *Fall from grace*

Garland’s personal life, however, was less successful. She married music arranger David Rose in 1941, but that marriage ended long before their 1945 divorce. That same year she married director Vincente Minnelli (1910–1986), who guided Garland in some of her most notable films, including *The Pirate* (1948). Daughter Liza Minnelli (later a star in her own right) was born in 1946. This second marriage also failed and was over well before the 1951 divorce. All during the 1940s Garland was hampered by a lack of self-confidence,

strained by constant work, and slowed by weight problems. She became heavily dependent on pills and in the end broke down, trying to kill herself in 1950.

Once a professional talent and hard worker, Garland became a problem artist during the 1940s. The filming of *In the Good Old Summertime* (1949) was repeatedly delayed, as was *Summer Stock* (1950). A pattern had been set that would increasingly set back her career. She was replaced in a number of films and finally was fired by MGM in 1950.

### ***Ups and downs***

Sidney Luft, a successful promoter who later became her third husband (1952), started Garland on a career on concert stages. She was a smashing success at the Palladium in London, England, at the Palace Theatre in New York City, and elsewhere. The magnificent film *A Star Is Born* (1954) capped her comeback, and she earned an Oscar nomination. But faltering health, increasing drug dependency, and alcohol abuse led to nervous breakdowns, suicide attempts, and recurrent breakups with Luft, by whom she had two children, Lorna (1952) and Joseph (1955). The Lufts finally divorced in 1965 after years of legal wrangling.

Notwithstanding her troubles, Garland undertook a highly successful concert tour in 1961, which was capped by an enthusiastically received concert at New York City's Carnegie Hall. The live recording of that event sold over two million copies. That same year she earned an Oscar nomination for best supporting actress for her dramatic performance in the film *Judgment at Nuremberg*. She had another non-singing role in the British

film *A Child Is Waiting* (1963). Her last film role was in another British film, *I Could Go On Singing* (1963). Garland had made a well-received television debut in 1955 on the *Ford Star Jubilee* and had done well in other guest appearances. Unfortunately, her long-awaited television weekly series did not fare well, and CBS cancelled the variety show after one season (1963–1964).

Garland's personal and professional life continued to be a series of ups and downs, marked by failing performances, comebacks, lawsuits, hospitalizations, and suicide attempts. After divorcing Luft she married Mark Herron, a young actor with whom she had traveled for some time. The marriage lasted only months. Mickey Deans, a discotheque manager twelve years her junior, whom she had married earlier that year, found her dead in their London flat on June 21, 1969. Death came from an "accidental" overdose of pills. She is buried in Hartsdale, New York.

Judy Garland was a superstar who, as one critic pointed out, "managed the considerable feat of converting herself into an underdog." Despite all the lows in her life she remained immensely popular and had an appeal that was never entirely lost.

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## MARCUS GARVEY

**Born:** August 17, 1887

**St. Ann's Bay, Jamaica**

**Died:** June 10, 1940

**London, England**

*Jamaican activist and African nationalist*

Marcus Garvey, a black man from the West Indies, was the first to forcefully speak about the concept of African nationalism—of black people returning to Africa, the continent of their forefathers, in order to build a great nation of their own. His writings and ideas would inspire many leaders of the civil rights movement during the second half of the twentieth century.

### *Early life*

Marcus Mosiah Garvey was born in St. Ann's Bay, Jamaica, on August 17, 1887, the youngest child of a stonemason (one who prepares stones for building). He went to the local elementary school, and at the age of fourteen became an apprentice (working to gain experience) in the printing trade. In 1903 he went to the capital, Kingston, to work as a printer. He soon became involved in public activities and helped form the Printers Union, the first trade union in Jamaica. In 1907 he took part in the unsuccessful printers strike, where organized workers refused to work unless certain demands were met. This experience influenced the young Garvey in both his political and journalistic passions. He soon began publishing a periodical called the *Watchman*.

In 1910 Garvey began a series of travels that transformed him from an average person concerned about the problems of those with less opportunity, to an African nationalist determined to lift an entire race from bondage. He visited Costa Rica, Panama, and Ecuador, and worked as an editor for several radical newspapers. After briefly returning home, he proceeded to England, where contacts with African nationalists stimulated in him a keen interest in Africa and in black history. In each country he visited, he noted that the black man was in an inferior position, subject to the ever-changing ideals of stronger races. His reading of Booker T. Washington's (1856–1915) "Up from Slavery" at this time had a great effect upon him. Also at this time Garvey met Duse Mohammed Ali, a Sudanese-Egyptian and strong supporter of African self-rule. Garvey began writing for Ali's small magazines and was introduced to other black activists.

On his return to Jamaica in 1914 from England, Garvey formed the Universal Negro Improvement Association and African Communities League (UNIA-ACL). These organizations were intended "to work for the general uplift of the Negro peoples of the world," and would become the centerpiece for his life's work.

### *Message in America*

In 1916 Garvey went to the United States to raise funds to carry on the work of his Jamaican organizations. He was immediately caught up in the unrest of the times, and his voice thundered in the evenings on the streets of Harlem in New York City, New York. A New York branch of the UNIA was established, soon followed by branches in



Marcus Garvey.

other cities in the United States, in Central and South America, and in the Caribbean. The expansion of the UNIA was publicized by its official voice, *Negro World*, a newspaper published in English, Spanish, and French. Published in New York City from 1918 to 1933, the magazine was succeeded by the monthly *Black Man*, which ran through the 1930s, published after 1934 in London.

*Negro World* reached out to black communities all over the world. It even penetrated into the interior of Africa, even though the white rulers there had banned it. Garvey stressed the need for blacks to return to Africa for the building of a great nation, but he realized that until this was accomplished,

Africans needed to make themselves economically independent wherever they lived. He encouraged black people to start their own businesses—to take the business of their ghettos into their own hands.

Together with the American clergyman Archbishop George A. McGuire (1866–1934), Garvey formed the African Orthodox Church. This was in accordance with one of his basic principles, for he believed that each race must see God through its own racial eyes. The Black Christ and the Black Madonna were officially announced at the UNIA convention of 1924.

### *The movement stumbles*

The Black Star Line shipping company and the Negro Factories Corporation were to be the commercial strengths of the Garvey movement. But it was the failure of the shipping venture that gave Garvey's enemies the opportunity to destroy him. Investments in the shipping line were lost, and in 1925 Garvey was imprisoned in the United States. After serving two years and ten months of a five-year sentence, he was deported, or forced out of the country, to Jamaica.

Previously, his plans for colonization in Liberia had been ruined by the colonial powers that brought pressure to bear on the Liberian government. As a result, the land that had been granted to the Garvey organization for the settlement of overseas Africans was given to the white American industrialist Harvey Firestone (1863–1938). And the expensive equipment shipped to Liberia for the use of Garvey's colonists was seized.

In Jamaica, Garvey attempted to enter local politics, but restrictions at the time did



not allow the vote to the black masses. He went to England and continued his work of social protest and his call for the liberation (freeing) of Africa. He died in London on June 10, 1940. Marcus Garvey was married twice. His second wife, Amy Jacques, whom he married in 1922, bore him two sons.

### ***Garvey's legacy***

The Garvey movement was the greatest international movement of African peoples in modern times. At its peak, from 1922 to 1924, the movement counted more than eight million followers. The youngest members of the movement were taken in at five years of age and, as they grew older, they graduated to the sections for older children.

Garvey emphasized the belief in the One God, the God of Africa, who should be visualized through black eyes. He preached to black people to become familiar with their ancient history and their rich cultural heritage. He called for pride in the black race—for example, he made black dolls for black children. His was the first voice to clearly demand black power. It was he who said, “A race without authority and power is a race without respect.”

In emphasizing the need to have separate black institutions under black leadership, Garvey anticipated the mood and thinking of the future black nationalists by nearly fifty years. He died, as he lived, an unbending leader of African nationalism. The symbols which he made famous, the black star of Africa and the red, black, and green flag of African liberation, continued to inspire younger generations of African nationalists.

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## BILL GATES

**Born: October 28, 1955**

**Seattle, Washington**

*American businessman, chief executive officer,  
and software developer*

**M**icrosoft cofounder and chief executive officer Bill Gates has become the wealthiest man in America and one of the most influential personalities in the ever-evolving computer industry.

### ***Love of computer technology***

William H. Gates III was born on October 28, 1955, in Seattle, Washington. He was the second child and only son of William Henry Gates Jr., a successful Seattle attorney,

and Mary Maxwell, a former schoolteacher. Kristi, his older sister, later became his tax accountant and Libby, his younger sister, lives in Seattle raising her two children. Gates enjoyed a normal, active childhood and participated in sports, joined the Cub Scouts, and spent summers with his family in Bremerton, Washington.

Although Gates's parents had a law career in mind for their son, he developed an early interest in computer science and began studying computers in the seventh grade at Seattle's Lakeside School. Lakeside was a private school chosen by Gates's parents in the hopes that it would be more challenging for their son's intellectual drive and curiosity. At Lakeside, Gates came to know Paul Allen, a classmate with similar interests in technology who would eventually become his business partner. Immediately, Gates and Allen realized the potential of the young computer industry.

### ***Early experience***

Gates's early experiences with computers included debugging (eliminating errors from) programs for the Computer Center Corporation's PDP-10, helping to computerize electric power grids for the Bonneville Power Administration, and founding with Allen a firm called Traf-O-Data while still in high school. Their small company earned them twenty thousand dollars in fees for analyzing local traffic patterns.

While working with the Computer Center's PDP-10, Gates was responsible for what was probably the first computer virus, a program that copies itself into other programs and ruins data. Discovering that the machine was connected to a national network of com-

puters called Cybernet, Gates invaded the network and installed a program on the main computer that sent itself to the rest of the network's computers, making it crash (became damaged). When Gates was found out, he was severely punished, and he kept away from computers for his entire junior year at Lakeside. Without the lure of computers, Gates made plans for college and law school in 1970. But by 1971 he was back helping Allen write a class scheduling program for their school's computer.

### ***The article that started it all***

Gates entered Harvard University in 1973 and pursued his studies for the next year and a half. His life changed in January of 1975, however, when *Popular Mechanics* carried a cover story on a \$350 microcomputer, the Altair, made by a firm called MITS in New Mexico. When Allen excitedly showed him the story, Gates knew where he wanted to be: at the forefront of computer software (a program of instructions for a computer) design.

Gates dropped out of Harvard in 1975, ending his academic life and beginning his career as a software designer. At this time, Gates and Allen cofounded Microsoft. They wrote programs for the early Apple and Commodore machines. One of Gates's most significant opportunities arrived in 1980, when IBM approached him to help with their personal computer project, code name Project Chess. Gates developed the Microsoft Disk Operating System, or MS-DOS. (An operating system is a type of software that controls the way a computer runs.) Not only did he sell IBM on the new operating system, but he also convinced the computer giant to allow others to write software for the machine. The

result was the rapid growth of licenses for MS-DOS, as software developers quickly moved to become compatible with (able to work with) IBM. By the early 1990s Microsoft had sold more than one hundred million copies of MS-DOS, making the operating system the all-time leader in software sales. For his achievements in science and technology, Gates received the Howard Vollum Award in 1984 from Reed College in Portland, Oregon.

Gates's competitive drive and fierce desire to win has made him a powerful force in business, but it has also consumed much of his personal life. In the six years between 1978 and 1984, he took a total of only two weeks vacation. But on New Year's Day 1994 Gates married Melinda French, a Microsoft manager, on the Hawaiian island of Lanai. The ceremony was held on the island's Challenge golf course, and Gates kept it private by buying out the unused rooms at the local hotel and by hiring all of the helicopters in the area to keep photographers from using them. His fortune at the time of his marriage was estimated at close to seven billion dollars. By 1997 his worth was estimated at approximately \$37 billion, earning him the title of "richest man in America."

### ***The future for Microsoft***

Many criticize Gates not just for his success, but because they feel he tries to unfairly—and maybe even illegally—dominate the market. As a result of Microsoft's market control, the U.S. Department of Justice brought an antitrust lawsuit (a lawsuit that is the result of a company being accused of using unfair business practices) against the company in 1998, saying the company had an illegal stronghold on the software industry.



*Bill Gates.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

Gates maintained Microsoft's success over rivals such as Oracle and IBM was simply the result of smart, strategic decision making. U.S. District Judge Thomas P. Jackson did not agree, and in November 1999, he found Microsoft to be a monopoly (a company with exclusive control) that used its market power to harm competing companies. Because of the ruling, Gates faced the prospect of breaking up Microsoft.

On January 13, 2000, Gates handed off day-to-day management of Microsoft to friend and right-hand man Steve Ballmer, adding chief executive officer to his existing title of president. Gates held on to his posi-

tion as chairman in the reshuffle, and added the title of chief software architect.

In the spring of 2002 Gates himself was scheduled to testify on behalf of Microsoft. The final ruling on the fate of Microsoft has the potential to be a landmark decision on the future of the computer industry.

### ***Gates as philanthropist***

Aside from being the most famous businessman of the late 1990s, Gates also has distinguished himself as a philanthropist (someone working for charity). He and wife Melinda established the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, which focuses on helping to improve health care and education for children around the world. The foundation has donated \$4 billion since its start in 1996. Recent pledges include \$1 billion over twenty years to fund college scholarships for about one thousand minority students; \$750 million over five years to help launch the Global Fund for Children's Vaccines; \$50 million to help the World Health Organization's efforts to eradicate polio, a crippling disease that usually attacks children; and \$3 million to help prevent the spread of acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; an incurable disease that destroys the body's immune system) among young people in South Africa. In November 1998 Gates and his wife also gave the largest single gift to a U.S. public library, when they donated \$20 million to the Seattle Public Library. Another of Gates's charitable donations was \$20 million given to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology to build a new home for its Laboratory for Computer Science.

In July 2000 the foundation gave John Hopkins University a five-year, \$20 million grant to study whether or not inexpensive

vitamin and mineral pills can help save lives in poor countries. On November 13, 2000, Harvard University's School of Public Health announced it had received \$25 million from the foundation to study AIDS prevention in Nigeria. The grant was the largest single private grant in the school's history. It was announced on February 1, 2001, that the foundation would donate \$20 million to speed up the global eradication (to completely erase) of the disease commonly known as elephantiasis, a disease that causes disfigurement. In 2002 Gates, along with rock singer Bono, announced plans for DATA Agenda, a \$24 billion fund (partially supported by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation) that seeks to improve health care in Africa.

Although many describe Gates as cold and distant, his friends find him friendlier since his marriage and since the birth of his daughter, Jennifer, in April 1996. Further, he recognizes his overall contribution to both the world of technology and his efforts in philanthropy. In *Forbes* magazine's 2002 list of the two hundred richest people in the world, Gates was number one for the eighth straight year, coming in with a net worth of \$52.8 billion.

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# PAUL GAUGUIN

**Born:** June 7, 1848

**Paris, France**

**Died:** May 8, 1903

**Marquesas Islands, French Polynesia**

*French artist, painter, and sculptor*

The French painter and sculptor Paul Gauguin sought exotic environments, first in France and later in Tahiti. He frequently combined the people and objects in his paintings in novel ways, bringing to mind a mysterious, personal world in the process.

## Early life

Paul Gauguin was born in Paris, France, on June 7, 1848, to a French father, a journalist from Orléans, and a mother of Spanish Peruvian descent. When Paul was three his parents sailed for Lima, Peru, after the victory of Louis Napoleon (1769–1821). His father died during the trip. Gauguin and his mother remained in Lima for four years. There the young Gauguin lived a comfortable life. Gauguin then returned to Orléans, and eventually found his way back to Paris. Next he attended a seminary (a school for religious studies). At the age of seventeen he enlisted in the merchant marine (people who work on commercial ships). In 1870 Gauguin began a career as a stockbroker (a person who buys and sells shares of companies) and remained in this profession for twelve years. He married a Danish girl, Mette Sophia Gad, and seemed destined for a comfortable middle-class existence.

## Beginnings as an artist

Gauguin's hobby was painting, which he pursued enthusiastically. The Salon of 1876 accepted one of his pictures, and he started a collection of works by impressionist painters. The impressionists were a group of painters who concentrated on the general impression produced by a scene or object. They used unmixed primary colors and small strokes to simulate actual reflected light. As time went on, Gauguin's desire to paint became ever stronger. In 1883 Gauguin, now thirty-five, decided to give up business and devote himself entirely to painting. His wife took their five children to live with her parents in Copenhagen, Denmark. Gauguin followed her, but he soon returned with his eldest son, Clovis, to Paris. There he supported himself by pasting advertisements on walls.

In 1886, with Clovis enrolled in a boarding school, Gauguin lived for a few months in the village of Pont-Aven in the Brittany region of northwestern France. He then left for the island of Martinique, first stopping to work as a laborer on the Panama Canal. He returned to Pont-Aven in February 1888 and gathered about him a group of painters. Gauguin preached and practiced a style he called synthetism, which involved pure color patterns, strong, expressive outlines, and flat planes. The painters admired the local people for their simple lives and deep religious faith. They felt these qualities reflected a truth about humanity's basic nature, which was not reflected in the sophisticated world of Paris.

## Pre-Tahitian paintings

Among Gauguin's masterpieces of this period are *Vision after the Sermon/Jacob Wrestling with the Angel* (1888) and the *Yellow*



Paul Gauguin.

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*Christ* (1889). In both paintings Breton (residents of Brittany) peasants (farm laborers) are strong elements. In both paintings one sees Gauguin's usual bright colors and simplified shapes, which he treated as flat silhouettes. These paintings also show his use of symbolism (using one thing to represent another). Objects and events are taken out of their normal historical contexts.

In *Vision after the Sermon*, Breton women observe Jacob wrestling with a stranger who turns out to be an angel. This is an episode described in the book of Genesis in the Bible. Gauguin is saying that the faith of these women enabled them to see miraculous

events of the past as vividly as if they were occurring before them. In the *Yellow Christ* Gauguin used a yellow, wooden statue from a church near Pont-Aven as his model. He depicts Breton women as if they were in the presence of the actual death of Jesus Christ.

In October 1888 Dutch painter Vincent van Gogh (1853–1890) invited Gauguin to join him at Arles, France. Gauguin was a proud, arrogant, sarcastic, and sophisticated person. Van Gogh was open and strongly needed human companionship. They did not get along and Gauguin returned to Paris. There he resumed his bohemian (nontraditional and artistic) existence until 1891, when he left France and the Western (characterized by European and American ideals) civilization he had come to dislike and went to Tahiti.

### Tahiti

Gauguin embodied the dissatisfaction with bourgeois (middle-class) Parisian existence felt by several postimpressionist painters. He achieved what was perhaps the most extreme break with that society when he left Europe for a non-Western culture. When Gauguin arrived in Tahiti, he did not settle in the capital, Papeete, because Europeans lived there. Instead, he lived with the natives some twenty-five miles away. He perceived Tahiti as a land of beautiful and strong people, who were unspoiled by Western civilization. He enjoyed the bright, warm colors there.

Gauguin became ill and returned to France in August 1893. There he found that he had inherited a small sum of money from an uncle. In Paris he lived with flair. An exhibition of his Tahitian work in November was

not successful financially. In early 1894 he went to Denmark and then to Brittany.

### *Tahitian paintings*

Gauguin's Tahitian paintings celebrate the lushness and mysterious splendor of his new environment. At the same time they are seldom pictures of actual Tahitian life. They contain combinations of objects and persons taken out of their normal settings, as did several of his paintings done in Brittany. In *La Orana Maria* (1891) a Tahitian woman, her young son, and two women standing nearby are shown in the obvious poses of the Virgin Mary and the Christ child with attendant saints or worshiping angels. In *Where Do We Come From? What Are We? Where Are We Going?* (1898) Tahitian natives are portrayed in unusual and probably preplanned meditative poses with a foreboding (giving a warning) primitive idol.

### *Second trip to Tahiti*

In 1895 an unsuccessful auction of Gauguin's paintings was held. He sailed for Tahiti that spring. He once again settled among the natives. His health grew poorer. An ankle he had broken in Brittany did not heal properly, and he suffered from strokes. The government authorities, for whom he showed contempt, harassed him. However, he had to depend on them for menial jobs (work that is beneath a person's skills) in order to support himself. In 1901 he moved to the Marquesas Islands. He died there, alone, of a stroke on May 8, 1903.

Gauguin is regarded today as a highly influential founder of modern art. He focused on color and line, and often created a profound sense of mystery in his work. His unusual com-

binations of objects and people can be seen as forerunners of the surrealist (using fantastic imagery) art of the 1920s and later.

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## KARL FRIEDRICH GAUSS

**Born:** April 30, 1777

Brunswick, Germany

**Died:** February 23, 1855

Göttingen, Germany

*German mathematician*

The German mathematician Karl Friedrich Gauss made outstanding contributions to both pure (studied for its own sake) and applied (studied in order to solve specific problems) mathematics.

### *Early life and education*

Karl Friedrich Gauss was born in Brunswick, Germany, on April 30, 1777. He was the son of Gebhard Dietrich Gauss, a gardener and bricklayer, and Dorothea Gauss, the daughter of a stonecutter. Karl was an



Karl Friedrich Gauss.

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extremely bright child, correcting his father's arithmetic when he was three years old. His intellectual abilities attracted the attention of the Duke of Brunswick, who sent him first to the Collegium Carolinum (1792–95) in Brunswick and then to the University of Göttingen (1795–98).

### *Theory of numbers*

In 1801 Gauss published *Disquisitiones arithmeticae*, which is often regarded as the work that marked the beginning of the modern theory of numbers. It combined the work of past scientists with his own, and was presented in such an elegant and complete way

that it rendered previous works on the subject obsolete (out of date and no longer needed).

Gauss made many outstanding contributions to the theory of numbers, including research on the division of a circle into equal parts. This solved a famous problem in Greek geometry (the study of points, lines, angles, and surfaces), namely, the inscription (drawing inside) of regular polygons (closed figures bounded by straight lines) in a circle. First, Gauss proved that a regular polygon with seventeen sides can be constructed with a ruler and compass; he then showed that any polygon with a prime number (able to be divided only by itself or the number 1) of sides can be constructed with these instruments.

Gauss also gave three proofs for the idea—conceived by others but never proved—that every equation in algebra has at least one root. Gauss was the first to adopt a strict approach to the treatment of infinite (never-ending) series of numbers. He also opened up a new line of research by updating the definition of a prime number.

### *Astronomical calculations*

The discovery by Giuseppe Piazzi of the asteroid Ceres in 1801 increased Gauss's interest in astronomy, and upon the death of the Duke of Brunswick, Gauss was appointed director of the observatory (a building whose purpose is to observe stars and planets) in Göttingen, Germany, where he remained for the rest of his life. Gauss successfully determined the orbit of Ceres and was able to predict its correct position. Gauss's success in these calculations encouraged him to develop his methods further, and in 1809 his *Theoria motus corporum coelestium* appeared. In it



Gauss discussed how to determine orbits from observed data.

In his calculation of the orbits of planets, Gauss used the method of least squares. This method is used to determine the most likely value of something from a number of available observations. In defense of the method, Gauss created the Gaussian law of error, which became known in studies of probability (chance) and statistics (the collection, study, and presentation of data) as the normal distribution.

### ***Non-Euclidean geometry***

Although he published nothing on the subject, Gauss was almost certainly the first to develop the idea of non-Euclidean geometry (disputing one of Euclid's [335 –270 B.C.E.] theories that through a given point not on a given line, there exists only one line parallel to the given line). As adviser to the government of Hanover, Gauss had to consider the problem of surveying (measuring and determining exact position of) hilly country. This led him to develop the idea that the measurements of a curved surface could be developed in terms of Gaussian coordinates (points). Instead of considering the surface as part of a three-dimensional (displaying depth) space, Gauss set up a network of coordinates on the surface itself,

showing that the geometry of the surface can be described completely in terms of measurements in this network. Defining a straight line as the shortest distance between two points, measured along the surface, the geometry of a curved surface can be regarded as a two-dimensional (lacking depth) non-Euclidean geometry.

Apart from his books Gauss published a number of memoirs (reports of his experiences), mainly in the journal of the Royal Society of Göttingen. In general, however, he was unwilling to publish anything that could be regarded as controversial (causing a dispute), and as a result some of his most brilliant work was found only after his death. Gauss married twice, but both wives died young. Of his six children, his youngest daughter remained to take care of him until his death on February 23, 1855.

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ENCYCLOPEDIA  
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## *reader's guide*

*U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography* features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

for further information. A contents section lists biographees by their nationality. Nearly 750 photographs and illustrations are featured, and a general index provides quick access to the people and subjects discussed throughout *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*.

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### ***Comments and suggestions***

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## HANS GEIGER

**Born:** September 30, 1882

**Neustadt an-der-Haardt, Germany**

**Died:** September 24, 1945

**Potsdam, Germany**

*German experimental physicist*

**H**ans Geiger was a German nuclear physicist (a person who studies the inner core of the atom) best known for his invention of the Geiger counter, a device used for detecting and counting atomic particles, and for his work in nuclear physics with Ernest Rutherford (1871–1937).

### *Early life*

Johannes Wilhelm Geiger was born in Neustadt an-der-Haardt (now Neustadt an-der-Weinstrasse), Germany, on September 30, 1882. His father, Wilhelm Ludwig Geiger, was a professor at the University of Erlangen from 1891 to 1920. The eldest of five children, Geiger was educated first at Erlangen Gymnasium, from which he graduated in 1901. After completing his required military service, he studied physics (the study of the relationship between matter and energy) at the University of Munich and at the University of Erlangen, receiving a doctorate from Erlangen in 1906 for his study of electrical releases through gases.



*Hans Geiger.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

### ***Partners with Rutherford***

Geiger moved to Manchester University in England, where he met Ernest Rutherford, head of the physics department. Rutherford and Geiger began a lifelong personal and professional friendship. They began experiments based on Rutherford's detection of the release of alpha particles (particles with "positive" electric charges) from radioactive substances (substances whose atoms give off particles of matter and harmful rays of energy).

Since alpha particles can penetrate thin walls of solids, Rutherford and Geiger presumed that they could also move through

atoms. Geiger designed a machine that would shoot alpha particles through gold foil onto a screen, where they were observed as tiny flashes of light. Counting the thousands of flashes per minute was a long, hard task. Geiger decided to try to invent an easier, more accurate way to count them. His solution was an early version of the "Geiger counter," an electrical machine designed to count released alpha particles.

In 1912 Geiger returned to Germany as director of the new Laboratory for Radioactivity at the Physikalisch-Technische Reichsanstalt in Berlin, Germany, where he invented an instrument for measuring not only alpha particles but other types of radiation (the giving off of energy and particles from atoms) as well. Geiger's research was interrupted by the start of World War I (1914–18; a war fought between the German-led Central Powers and the Allies—England, the United States, Italy, and other nations), during which he fought with the German troops. Crouching in trenches on the front lines left Geiger with painful rheumatism (stiffness and pain in the joints). With the war over, Geiger returned to the Reichsanstalt. In 1920 he married Elisabeth Heffter, with whom he had three sons.

### ***Perfects the Geiger-Mueller counter***

In 1925 Geiger became professor of physics at the University of Kiel, Germany. While there he developed, with Walther Mueller, the Geiger-Mueller counter, commonly referred to as the Geiger counter. The counter can locate a speeding alpha particle within about one centimeter in space and to within a hundred-millionth second in time. In 1925 Geiger used his counter to confirm

the existence of light quantum, or packets of energy.

Geiger left Kiel for the University of Tübingen in October of 1929 to serve as professor of physics and director of research at its physics institute. Installed at the Institute, Geiger worked constantly to increase the Geiger counter's speed and ability to detect. As a result of his efforts, he was able to discover bursts of radiation called cosmic-ray showers, and he concentrated on their study for the rest of his career.

### ***Stands up to Hitler***

Geiger returned to Berlin in 1936 upon being offered the chair of physics at the Technische Hochschule. He continued experimenting and improving the counter. He also became involved with politics after Adolf Hitler's (1889–1945) rise to power in Germany's National Socialist Party. Geiger and many other scientists did not want the government to interfere with or influence their work. He helped compose a position paper that was signed by seventy-five of Germany's most notable physicists. The paper was presented to Hitler's Education Ministry in late 1936. The document urged the government to keep its hands off science, complaining that there were too few new physicists and that students were avoiding the subject in Germany because of newspaper attacks on physics by National Socialists.

Geiger continued working at the Technische Hochschule through World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allied powers—Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), although he was often confined to bed with

rheumatism. He had just started to show signs of improvement in his health when his home near Babelsberg, Germany, was occupied in June 1945. Geiger was forced to flee to Potsdam, Germany, where he died on September 24, 1945.

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## THEODOR GEISEL

**Born:** March 2, 1904

**Springfield, Massachusetts**

**Died:** September 24, 1991

**La Jolla, California**

*American children's book author and illustrator*

Theodor Geisel, better known as Dr. Seuss, wrote the popular children's books *The Cat in the Hat*, *Green Eggs and Ham*, *Horton Hatches the Egg*, and many more. As Dr. Seuss, Geisel brought a whimsical touch and a colorful imagination to the world of children's books.





Theodor Geisel.

Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.

### Childhood and early career

Theodor Geisel was born on March 2, 1904, in Springfield, Massachusetts. His father owned a brewery until the onset of Prohibition, a time in the 1920s when buying and selling alcohol was made illegal. Geisel's father then took a job as superintendent of city parks, which included the local zoo. There, young Theodor spent many days drawing the animals and eventually developing his own unique style. Though Geisel would later gain fame because of his unique artistic style, he never once had an art lesson.

After graduating high school, Geisel went on to graduate from Dartmouth College

in 1925, and later studied at the Lincoln College of Oxford University in England. After dropping out of Oxford, he traveled throughout Europe, mingling with émigrés (those living abroad) in Paris, including writer Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961). Eventually returning to New York, he spent fifteen years in advertising before joining the army and making two Oscar-winning documentaries, "Hitler Lives" and "Design for Death," which he made with his wife, Helen Parker Geisel. He would also win an Oscar for his animated cartoon "Gerald McBoing Boing" (1951). Also at this time Geisel began drawing and selling his cartoons to national magazines, including *Vanity Fair* and the *Saturday Evening Post*. Later he worked as an editorial cartoonist for *PM* newspaper in New York.

### First books

Geisel began writing the verses of his first book, *And to Think That I Saw It on Mulberry Street*, in 1936 during a rough sea passage. But success did not come easy for the young author, as *Mulberry Street* was rejected by twenty-nine different publishers before it was finally accepted. Published in 1937, the book won much praise, largely because of its unique drawings.

All of Geisel's books, in fact, feature crazy-looking creatures that are sometimes based on real animals, but which usually consist of such bizarre combinations of objects as a centipede and a horse and a camel with a feather duster on its head. Unlike many puppeteers and cartoonists who have capitalized on their creations by selling their most familiar images to big-time toy-makers, Dr. Seuss concentrated his efforts on creating interesting books.

In May 1954, after a string of successful books, Geisel published what would become his most famous book, *The Cat in the Hat*. Legend has it that *The Cat in the Hat* was created, in part, because of a bet Geisel made with a publisher who said he could not write a complete children's book with less than 250 words. *The Cat in the Hat* came in at 223 words. In 1960 Geisel published his second-most successful book, *Green Eggs and Ham*, which used only fifty words. In 1958, from the success of his children's books, Geisel founded Beginner Books, which eventually became part of Random House.

### ***“Basically an educator”***

Admired among fellow authors and editors for his honesty and hard work, the Pulitzer Prize-winning author, according to Ruth MacDonald in the *Chicago Tribune*, “perfected the art of telling great stories with a vocabulary as small as sometimes fifty-two or fifty-three words.”

“[Geisel] was not only a master of word and rhyme and an original and eccentric artist,” Gerald Harrison, president of Random House's merchandise division, declared in *Publisher's Weekly*, “but down deep, I think he was basically an educator. He helped teach kids that reading was a joy and not a chore. . . . For those of us who worked with him, he taught us to strive for excellence in all the books we published.”

### ***Wrote for adults as well as children***

Geisel's last two books spent several months on the bestseller lists and include themes that appealed to adults as well as children. “Finally I can say that I write not for kids but for people,” he commented in the

*Los Angeles Times*. Many of his readers were surprised to learn that Geisel had no children of his own, though he had stepchildren from his second marriage to Audrey Stone Dimond. To this fact he once said, “You make 'em, I amuse 'em,” as quoted in the *Chicago Tribune*. According to the *Los Angeles Times*, the author also remarked, “I don't think spending your days surrounded by kids is necessary to write the kind of books I write. . . . Once a writer starts talking down to kids, he's lost. Kids can pick up on that kind of thing.”

Before Geisel, juvenile books were largely pastel, predictable, and dominated by a didactic tone (a sense that the books were intended to instruct). Though Dr. Seuss books sometimes included morals, they sounded less like behavioral guidelines and more like, “listen to your feelings” and “take care of the environment,” universal ideas that would win over the hearts of youngsters from around the world. Geisel's 47 books were translated into 20 languages and have sold more than 200 million copies. Of the ten bestselling hardcover children's books of all time, four were written by Geisel: *The Cat in the Hat*, *Green Eggs and Ham*, *One Fish, Two Fish, Red Fish, Blue Fish*, and *Hop on Pop*.

Theodor Geisel died September 24, 1991, in La Jolla, California. To children of all ages, Dr. Seuss remains the most famous and influential name in children's literature.

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## GENGHIS KHAN

**Born:** c. 1155

**Mongolia**

**Died:** August 25, 1227

**Kansu, China**

*Mongolian conqueror and ruler*

Genghis Khan was the creator of the Mongol nation and the founder of one of the greatest empires the world has ever seen.

### *Early life*

Genghis Khan, whose original name was Temüjin, was born near the river Onon in the northeast corner of present-day Mongolia. When he was nine years old his father Yesugei took him to another tribe to find him a wife. On the way back Yesugei was killed by the Tatars, who in the second half of the twelfth century had displaced the Mongols as the strongest tribe in eastern Mongolia. Yesugei's followers deserted his widow and children, who were then forced to live in conditions of great hardship. Temüjin survived by hunting and fishing.

### *Rise to power*

Temüjin began to attract followers who liked how he handled himself in battle. He became a follower of Toghril, the ruler of a Christian tribe in central Mongolia. Toghril and a young Mongol chief named Jamuka helped Temüjin rescue his wife, who had been captured by the Merkits, a tribe in present-day Russia. Some of the Mongol princes named Temüjin as their ruler, giving him the title of Chingiz-Khan (Genghis Khan), or "Supreme Ruler of the Ocean." Genghis Khan and Toghril later helped North China in a successful battle against the Tatars.

Relations between Genghis Khan and Toghril worsened and eventually led to open warfare. Genghis Khan was defeated in the first battle and withdrew into a remote area of northeastern Mongolia. In 1203, however, he gained a complete victory over Toghril, who fled and was killed by the Naimans. Toghril's people were absorbed by the Mongols. Genghis Khan now turned against his enemies in western Mongolia, including the Naimans allied with Jamuka and the rest of the Merkits. The Naimans were defeated in 1204. Jamuka was soon given up by his followers and put to death by his former friend. In 1206 a group of Mongol princes proclaimed Genghis Khan supreme ruler of the Mongol peoples.

### *Conquest of China*

Genghis Khan did more than just invade and conquer. He established a code of laws for the empire and a standard written language for his people, and he set up a kind of postal system to help different parts of the empire communicate with each other. His greatest skill, though, was as a military

leader. In 1211 the Mongols began a full assault on China by invading the entire region north of the Great Wall. In the summer of 1215 Peking, China, was captured. Leaving one of his generals in charge of further operations in North China, Genghis Khan returned to Mongolia to devote his attention to events in central Asia.

Küchlüg the Naiman, who had taken refuge among the Kara-Khitai, had overthrown the ruler of that people and taken over that kingdom. An army sent by Genghis Khan chased him into Afghanistan, where he was captured and put to death; the takeover of his territory gave the Mongols a common frontier with Sultan Muhammad, the ruler of Khiva, who after recent conquests had claimed all of central Asia as well as Afghanistan and the greater part of Persia.

### *Campaign in the West*

It was only a matter of time before the two empires went to war; it began with the execution of some of Genghis Khan's supporters and merchants accompanying them at the town of Otrar. Genghis Khan set out for revenge in the spring of 1219. By April 1220 he had captured Otrar as well as the cities of Bukhara and Samarkand. Genghis Khan sent his two best generals in pursuit of Sultan Muhammad, who fled across Persia and was killed on an island in the Caspian Sea. Continuing westward, the generals defeated an army of Russians and Turks before rejoining their master on his journey homeward. Genghis Khan, in the meantime, had attacked and captured Termez in the autumn of 1220 and spent the winter in what is now Tajikistan.

Early in 1221 Genghis Khan destroyed the city of Balkh, in the Persian province of



*Genghis Khan.*

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Khurasan. He sent his son Tolui (Tulē) to complete the takeover of that province, which has not fully recovered from the damage to this day. Genghis Khan advanced through Afghanistan to attack Sultan Jalal al-Din, the son of Sultan Muhammad, who had defeated a Mongol army near Kabul. He fought with Jalal al-Din on the banks of the Indus; the sultan escaped capture only by swimming across the river. Jalal al-Din's defeat concluded the campaign in the west, and Genghis Khan returned to Mongolia. In 1226 he resumed war with the Tanguts, a Tibetan people. He died, with the war still in progress, in the Liupan Mountains in Kansu on August 25, 1227.

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## J. PAUL GETTY

**Born:** December 15, 1892

**Minneapolis, Minnesota**

**Died:** June 6, 1976

**London, England**

*American businessman*

J. Paul Getty was a billionaire independent oil producer who founded and controlled the Getty Oil Company and over two hundred other related companies.

### **Childhood**

Jean Paul Getty was born on December 15, 1892, in Minneapolis, Minnesota. His father, George Franklin Getty, was a lawyer, but in 1904 he moved his wife, Sarah Risher Getty, and his son to the Oklahoma territory to begin a successful career in the oil business. Two years later the family moved to Los Angeles, California, where young Getty attended private school before graduating

from Polytechnic High School in 1909.

After graduation Getty attended the University of Southern California and the University of California at Berkeley where he studied political science and economics. During the summers he worked on his father's oil rigs as a "roustabout," or unskilled laborer. In 1912 Getty enrolled in Oxford University in England, from which he received a degree in economics and political science in 1914. Afterwards he traveled around Europe before returning to the United States.

### **Striking oil**

In 1914 Getty arrived in Tulsa, Oklahoma, determined to strike it rich as an oil producer. Although he operated independently of his father's Minnehoma Oil Company, his father's loans and financial backing enabled him to begin buying and selling oil leases in the red-bed area of Oklahoma. In 1916 Getty's own first successful well came in, and by the fall of that year he had made his first million dollars as an oil producer.

For the next two years Getty "retired" to the life of a wealthy bachelor in Los Angeles, but he returned to the oil business in 1919. During the 1920s he and his father continued to be enormously successful both in drilling their own wells and in buying and selling oil leases (renting out oil rigs), and Getty became more active in California than in Oklahoma. He amassed a personal fortune of over three million dollars and acquired a third interest in what was to become the Getty Oil Company.

Paul Getty became the president of the George Getty Oil Company after his father's death in 1930. During the 1930s his wells continued to produce, and profits poured in.

He also bought a controlling interest in the Pacific Western Oil Corporation, one of the ten largest oil companies in California. After a series of agreements with his mother, he obtained the controlling interest in the George Getty Oil Company. He also began real estate dealings, including the purchase of the Hotel Pierre in New York City.

### ***The Getty Oil Company***

After World War II (1939–45), Getty took a gamble on oil rights in the Middle East. In 1949 he secured the oil rights in Saudi Arabia's half of the Neutral Zone, a barren area between Saudi Arabia and Kuwait. He made major deals with King Saud (c. 1880–1953), which shocked the large oil companies. After three years and a \$30 million investment, however, Getty found the huge oil deposits that helped make him a billionaire. In 1957 *Fortune* magazine published a list of the richest men in America. Getty's name headed the list, and the publicity turned Getty into an object of public fascination and legend.

After 1959 Getty stopped living out of hotel rooms and established his home and offices at Sutton Place, a sixteenth-century, seven-hundred-acre manor outside London, England. The huge estate, with its gardens, pools, trout stream, and priceless furnishings, was also a near fortress with elaborate security arrangements. Giant Alsatian dogs had the run of the estate, and there were also two caged lions, Nero and Teresa.

Getty was a celebrity, and public interest, fueled by envy and admiration, focused on Getty's tragedies as well as his billions. The public seemed to like to read into Getty's life the lesson that money does not buy happiness. Getty was married five times and each



*J. Paul Getty.*

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marriage ended in divorce. He had five sons, two of whom died before him, and his relationship with each of them was difficult. His grandson, J. Paul Getty III, was kidnapped in Italy in 1973. Although he was returned for a ransom (exchanged for money), part of his ear had been cut off.

Jean Paul Getty died at Sutton Place on June 6, 1976. He is buried on his Malibu, California, estate.

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## KAHLIL GIBRAN

**Born:** January 6, 1883

**Besharri, Lebanon**

**Died:** April 10, 1931

**New York, New York**

*Lebanese poet, author, and artist*

**L**ebanese writer and artist Kahlil Gibran influenced modern Arabic literature and composed inspirational pieces in English, including *The Prophet*.

### *Childhood and early career*

Kahlil Gibran, baptized Gibran Khalil Gibran, the oldest child of Khalil Gibran and his wife Kamila Rahme, was born January 6, 1883, in Besharri, Lebanon, then part of Syria and the Ottoman Turkish Empire. His childhood in a village beneath Mt. Lebanon included few comforts, and he had no formal early education. However, he received a strong spiritual influence from legends and biblical stories handed down through generations.

Seeking a better future, the family, except for his father, moved to the United States in

1895. There they joined relatives and shared an apartment in South Boston, Massachusetts. While registering for public school, Gibran's name was shortened and changed. His life changed when a local art teacher noticed his artistic skill and arranged for Gibran's introduction to photographer Fred Holland Day in December 1896. After discovering Gibran's talent for literature and art, Day declared him to be a "natural genius" and became his mentor, or teacher. Gibran soon designed book illustrations, sketched portraits, and met Day's friends. He then went to Beirut, Lebanon, in 1898 to attend Madrasat-al-Hikmah, a college where he studied Arabic literature and started a literary magazine.

### *An inspired career*

Upon returning to Boston, Gibran resumed his art work and renewed his friendship with Day. In 1904 Gibran and another artist exhibited their work at Day's studio in Boston. Here Gibran met Mary Elizabeth Haskell, who became his patron (supporter) as well as his tutor in English for two decades. She aided several talented, needy people and was a major factor in Gibran's success as an English writer and artist.

From 1908 to 1910 Haskell provided funds for Gibran to study painting and drawing in Paris, France. Before going to France, he studied English literature with her and had an essay, "al-Musiqā" (1905), published by the Arabic immigrant press in New York City. Diverse influences, including Boston's literary world, the English Romantic poets, mystic William Blake (1757–1827), and philosopher Nietzsche (1844–1900), combined with his experience in Lebanon, shaped Gibran's artistic and literary career.

### *Gains fame*

After “Spirits Rebellious,” an Arabic poem, was published in 1908, Gibran was called a reformer (one who seeks social improvements) and quickly became influential in the Arabic world. He soon became the best known of the “Mahjar poets,” or immigrant Arabic writers. His most respected Arabic poem is the “The Procession” (1919).

Gibran soon made his mark on the New York artistic and literary world as well. His first work in English appeared in 1918 when *The Madman* was published. The parables (stories that illustrate a moral or religious lesson) and poems on justice, freedom, and God are illustrated by three of Gibran’s own drawings.

In October 1923 *The Prophet* was published, and it sold over one thousand copies in three months. The slim volume of parables, illustrated with Gibran’s drawings, is one of America’s all-time best selling books, with its fame spreading by word of mouth. By 1931 *The Prophet* had been translated into twenty languages. In the 1960s it reached new heights of popularity with American college students.

### *Later career and legacy*

Although in failing health, Gibran completed two more books in English—*Sand and Foam* (1926) and *Jesus, The Son of Man* (1928). After his death, earlier essays were compiled and published, and his Arabic work was translated into many languages.

Gibran was forty-eight when he died in New York City on April 10, 1931, of cancer of the liver. The Arabic world praised him after his death as a genius and patriot. A



Kahlil Gibran.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

large group greeted his body upon its return to Besharri for burial in September 1931. Today Arabic scholars praise Gibran for introducing Western romanticism and a freer style to strict Arabic poetry. “Gibranism,” the term used for his approach, attracted many followers.

The young emigrant from Lebanon who came through Ellis Island in 1895 never became an American citizen; he loved his birthplace too much. But he was able to combine two heritages and achieved lasting fame in widely different cultures. The following passage from *Sand and Foam* illustrates Gibran’s message:



Faith is an oasis in the heart which will never be reached by the caravan of thinking. How can you sing if your mouth be filled with food? How shall your hand be raised in blessing if it is filled with gold?

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## ALTHEA GIBSON

**Born:** August 25, 1927

**Silver, South Carolina**

*African American tennis player*

**A**lthea Gibson is noted not only for her exceptional abilities as a tennis player, but for breaking the color barrier in the 1950s as the first African American to compete in national and international tennis.

### **Childhood in Harlem**

Althea Gibson was born in Silver, South Carolina, on August 25, 1927. She was the first of Daniel and Anna Washington Gib-

son's five children. Her parents worked on a cotton farm, but when she was three years old the family moved north to the Harlem area of New York City. Gibson caused a lot of problems as a child and often missed school. Her father was very strict with her on these occasions, but he also taught her to box, a skill that he figured would come in handy in the rough neighborhood the Gibson family lived in.

### **Tennis success**

When Gibson was ten years old, she became involved with the Police Athletic League (PAL) movement known as "play streets." PAL was an attempt to help troubled children establish work habits they would need later in life. In 1940 PAL promoted paddle ball (a game similar to handball except that it is played using a wooden racket) competitions in Harlem. After three summers of playing the game Gibson was so good that the Cosmopolitan Tennis Club sponsored her to learn the game of tennis and proper social behavior.

In 1942 Gibson began winning tournaments sponsored by the American Tennis Association (ATA), the African American version of the United States Lawn Tennis Association (USLTA). In 1944 and 1945 Gibson won the ATA National Junior Championships. In 1946 several politically minded African Americans identified Gibson as having the talent to help break down organized racism (unequal treatment based on race) in the United States. Sponsored by Hubert Eaton and Walter Johnson (1887–1946) and inspired by boxer Sugar Ray Robinson (1921–1989), Gibson was soon winning every event on the ATA schedule. In 1949 she

entered A&M University in Tallahassee, Florida, on a tennis scholarship and prepared for the difficult task of breaking the color barrier in tournament tennis.

### ***Breaking the color barrier***

The USLTA finally allowed Gibson to play in the 1950 Nationals when four-time U.S. singles and doubles (a two-person team) champion Alice Marble (1913–) spoke out on her behalf. Gibson lost her first match of the tournament, but the breakthrough had been made. Over the next several years Gibson worked as a physical education teacher at Lincoln University in Jefferson City, Missouri. She also continued playing tennis and rose up the USLTA rankings (ninth in 1952, seventh in 1953). After a year of touring the world and playing special events for the U.S. State Department, Gibson staged a full-scale assault on the tennis world in 1956. That year she won the French Open in both singles and doubles.

Over the next two years Gibson was the leading women's tennis player in the world. In 1957 and 1958 she won both the Wimbledon and U.S. National singles titles, becoming the first African American to win a Wimbledon singles title. In 1958 she wrote a book about her life called *I Always Wanted to Be Somebody*. After her 1958 victory at the U.S. Nationals, Gibson retired from tennis and played professional golf. She was elected to the International Tennis Hall of Fame in 1971.

### ***Later years***

In 1994 Gibson suffered a stroke that left her confined to her home. In February 2001 her picture was featured on a Wheaties



*Althea Gibson.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

cereal box as part of a special Black History Month package. Later that year tennis stars Venus (1980–) and Serena Williams (1981–) were honored at an Althea Gibson Foundation dinner that raised \$100,000 for scholarships and youth development programs. Through a spokeswoman, Gibson congratulated the Williams sisters for having grown into two of the best tennis players in the world.

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## DIZZY GILLESPIE

**Born:** October 21, 1917

**Cheraw, South Carolina**

**Died:** October 6, 1993

**Englewood, New Jersey**

*African American musician and bandleader*

**F**ifty years after helping found a new style of revolutionary jazz that came to be known as bebop, Dizzy Gillespie's music is still a major contributing factor in the development of modern jazz.

### *Difficult childhood*

John Birks Gillespie was born October 21, 1917, in Cheraw, South Carolina, to John and Lottie Gillespie. The last of nine children, Gillespie's father was abusive and unusually strict and the youngest Gillespie grew up hard and strong.

When Gillespie was ten, his father died and left the family in terrible financial trouble. Around this time Gillespie's English teacher introduced him to music, and he soon joined the school band. At first he played the trombone, but switched to the

trumpet after borrowing a neighbor's and immediately falling in love with the instrument. Over the next several years Gillespie played with local bands—to both black and white audiences—until his family moved to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

### *In Philly and New York*

Gillespie played with bands in Philadelphia from 1935 to 1937 before moving to New York City. In Philadelphia Gillespie earned his nickname for his unpredictable and funny behavior. When Gillespie was in the Frankie Fairfax band in Philadelphia he carried his new trumpet in a paper bag, an act that inspired fellow musicians like Bill Doggett to call him “Dizzy.”

In New York City the Teddy Hill Orchestra hired Gillespie for a European tour. By 1937—when he was only nineteen—Gillespie had already made a name for himself among New York musicians, who could not help but notice his radically fresh take on solo (single) trumpet playing. Gillespie made his first recordings with the Teddy Hill Orchestra just prior to leaving for Europe with “The Cotton Club Show.”

Gillespie joined the Cab Calloway (1907–1994) Orchestra in 1939 and stayed until 1941. Calloway played the Cotton Club and toured extensively. During this period Gillespie continued to play all-night jam sessions at Minton's and Monroe's Uptown House to develop his musical knowledge and style.

Gillespie joined the Earl “Fatha” Hines band in 1942, about the same time Charlie Parker (1920–1955) did. Although Parker became famous as an alto saxophonist, he was

playing tenor sax at that time. Gillespie first met Parker in Kansas City, Missouri, in 1940 when he was on tour with Cab Calloway. The two of them jammed together at the Booker T. Washington Hotel for several hours.

### ***Bebop born on 52nd Street***

A large part of the Earl Hines band departed in 1943 to form a new group headed by Billy Eckstine. Former Hines members who joined Eckstine included Sarah Vaughan (1924–1990), Gillespie, Parker, and others. Gillespie became musical director for Eckstine, whose backers got him a job on 52nd Street.

After leaving Eckstine, Gillespie substituted in the Duke Ellington (1899–1974) Orchestra for about four weeks, then formed his own group to play at the newly opened Onyx Club on 52nd Street. Gillespie had been playing bebop (a new, radically different form of jazz) whenever he could since 1940, the year he married Lorraine Willis. Now he was able to play it full time. 52nd Street became the proving ground for a new jazz style that had previously been played primarily at late night jam sessions. “The opening of the Onyx Club represented the birth of the bebop era,” Gillespie recalled in his book, *To Be or Not to Bop*.

Also in 1944 Gillespie received the New Star Award from *Esquire* magazine, the first of many awards he would receive in his career. Describing the new style his quintet played, Gillespie wrote, “We’d take the chord structures of various standard and pop tunes and create new chords, melodies, and songs from them.”

Gillespie’s quintet and the presentation of modern jazz reached its peak in 1953—

with a concert at Massey Hall in Toronto that featured Gillespie, Parker, Bud Powell (1924–1966), Max Roach (1924–), and legendary jazz bassist Charles Mingus (1922–1979). Billed by jazz critics as “the greatest jazz concert ever,” it was recorded by Mingus and later released on Debut Records.

### ***Gillespie’s legacy***

In 1989, the year he turned seventy-two, Dizzy Gillespie received a Lifetime Achievement Award at the National Association of Recording Arts and Sciences’ Grammy Award ceremonies. The honor—one of many awarded to the trumpet virtuoso—recog-

nized nearly fifty years of pioneering jazz performances. That same year he received the National Medal of Arts from President George Bush (1924–).

Not letting age slow him down, in 1989 Gillespie gave three hundred performances in twenty-seven countries, appeared in one hundred U.S. cities in thirty-one states and the District of Columbia, headlined three television specials, performed with two symphonies, and recorded four albums. The next year, at the Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts ceremonies celebrating the centennial of American jazz, Gillespie received the American Society of Composers, Authors, and Publishers' Duke Award for fifty years of achievement.

Although Gillespie's failing health was due to pancreatic (having to do with the organ that helps digestion) cancer, Gillespie continued to play the music that he loved late into his life. His last public appearance was in Seattle in February of 1992. Gillespie passed away quietly in his sleep on October 6, 1993, at the age of seventy-five.

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## RUTH BADER GINSBURG

**Born:** March 15, 1933

**Brooklyn, New York**

*American Supreme Court justice and lawyer*

Ruth Bader Ginsburg is the second woman ever to sit on the United States Supreme Court and is known as the legal architect of the modern women's movement. She, more than any other person, pointed out that many laws encouraged gender discrimination; that is, they led to better treatment of men than women instead of guaranteeing equal rights and opportunities to all as was intended by the United States Constitution.

#### ***The search for equality in the law begins***

Ruth Joan Bader was born March 15, 1933, to Nathan and Cecelia (Amster) Bader in Brooklyn, New York. Her mother was a role model in Ruth's life at a time when women had to fight for the privileges and rights that men took for granted. "I pray that I may be all that she would have been had she lived in an age when women could aspire [seek to reach a goal] and achieve and daughters are cherished as much as sons," the *New York Times* quoted Ginsburg as saying of her mother after she was named to the Supreme Court. Cecelia Bader had once hoped to attend college but instead went to work in a garment factory to help pay for her brother's education. This was a sacrifice many women made in the early decades of the 1900s.

Ruth Bader loved to read and learn. Her interest in the law started in grade school,

when she wrote articles for her school newspaper about the Magna Carta, a document that represented the first step toward freedom in English-speaking lands. She attended Cornell University, where she graduated with high honors in government. She then married Martin Ginsburg, a law student. She went on to Harvard Law School, where she served on the Law Review.

In the male-dominated world of law, Ruth Bader Ginsburg was told that she and her eight female classmates—out of a class of five-hundred—were taking the places of qualified males. She transferred to Columbia University after two years when her husband, who would become one of the country's top tax lawyers, took a job in New York. Here she continued to encounter gender discrimination; although she graduated at the top of her class, law firms, which normally welcome talented graduates, refused to hire her.



*Ruth Bader Ginsburg.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Supreme Court Historical Society.*

### ***Teaching and practicing law***

After working for District Judge Edmund L. Palmieri in New York, Ginsburg joined the faculty of Rutgers University, where, in order to keep her job, she wore overly large clothes to hide the fact that she was carrying her second child. She was only the second female professor at Rutgers and one of only twenty women law professors in the country. In 1972, after teaching a course on women and the law at Harvard University, she was appointed the first female faculty member in the law school's history.

Ginsburg also served as a lawyer for the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), an organization that works to protect and ensure the constitutional rights of all persons and groups. She devoted most of her attention to

women's rights. A former ACLU colleague was quoted as telling the *Legal Times*, "We were young and very green. She had it all so carefully thought through. She knew exactly what she needed to do." In a 1973 case before the Supreme Court, Ginsburg successfully argued against a federal law that gave more housing and medical benefits to male members of the armed services than to females. However, she did not argue only cases in which women were the victims of discrimination. She believed that the law must give equal rights to all groups. For instance, she convinced the court that a portion of the Social Security Act (a law that provides pro-

tection for people against loss of income due to old age, disability, or death) favored women over men because it gave certain benefits to widows but not to widowers.

After winning five of the six cases she argued before the Supreme Court, Ginsburg was named a judge on the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia by President Jimmy Carter (1974–). She brought a cautious, thoughtful style to the court, and most people were pleased with her performance. Conservatives, who for the most part like things to stay as they are, agreed with her view that courts should only interpret laws and leave their creation to politicians. On the other hand, liberals, or people who are usually more open to change and reform, were pleased with her votes supporting broadcasting access to the courts.

### ***Supreme Court justice***

With the retirement of U.S. Supreme Court Justice Byron White (1917–) in 1993, President Bill Clinton (1946–) wanted a replacement with the intellect and the political skills to deal with the Supreme Court's top conservatives. He chose Ruth Bader Ginsburg. Court observers praised her commitment to the details of the law, her intelligent questioning of lawyers arguing before her, and her talent for using calm and sensible arguments to win over her fellow judges.

The Senate Judiciary Committee hearings to approve the choice of Ginsburg were unusually friendly. Committee Chairman Joseph Biden (1942–) said, according to the *Boston Globe*, that Ginsburg had “already helped to change the meaning of equality in our nation.” Ginsburg was confirmed by the Senate in a vote of ninety-six to three, becoming

the 107th Supreme Court Justice and its second female jurist after Sandra Day O'Connor (1930–). She was also the first justice to be named by a Democratic president since 1967. President Clinton said in a statement quoted by the *Detroit Free Press*, “I am confident that she will be an outstanding addition to the court and will serve with distinction for many years.”

### ***Women in the judiciary***

Since taking office, Ruth Bader Ginsburg has written thirty-five significant opinions (formal statements written by a judge), two important concurring (agreeing) opinions, and three selected dissenting (opposing) opinions. Ginsburg was seen as a stronger voice in favor of gender equality, the rights of workers, and the separation of church and state (the belief that neither the church nor the government should have any influence over the other) than many of the other judges on the Supreme Court. In 1999, she won the American Bar Association's Thurgood Marshall Award for her contributions to gender equality and civil rights.

As more and more women became judges throughout the country, Justice Ginsburg gave former president Carter credit for changing the judicial landscape for women forever. Appearing at a program entitled *Woman and the Bench* at the University of Pennsylvania Law School, she said, “He appointed women in numbers such as there would be no going back.” Ruth Bader Ginsburg deserves equal credit for surviving and fighting through the discrimination of the past to help bring about change.

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## WHOOPI GOLDBERG

**Born:** November 13, 1955

**New York, New York**

*African American actress and comedian*

The high-energy actress Whoopi Goldberg has appeared in such films as *The Color Purple*, *Ghost*, and *Sister Act*. She became the first African American woman to host the Academy Awards and only the second African American woman to actually win one.

**Early years**

Whoopi Goldberg was born Caryn E. Johnson in New York City around 1955 (some reports say 1949 or 1950), the first of Emma Johnson's two children. Her father abandoned the family, and Goldberg's mother worked at several different jobs, including as a nurse and teacher. Goldberg began acting in

children's plays with the Hudson Guild Theater at the age of eight and spent much of her free time watching movies, sometimes three or four a day. "I liked the idea that you could pretend to be somebody else and nobody would cart you off to the hospital," Goldberg explained to *Cosmopolitan*'s Stephen Farber.

During the 1960s Goldberg dropped out of high school and became addicted to drugs. Finally she sought help, cleaned herself up, and, in the process, married her drug counselor. A year later Goldberg gave birth to a daughter, Alexandra. Less than a year after that, she was divorced. During this time she worked as a summer camp counselor and as a member of the choruses of Broadway shows such as *Hair* and *Jesus Christ Superstar*.

**New start in California**

In 1974 Goldberg headed west to San Diego, California, pursuing her childhood dream of acting. She performed in plays with the San Diego Repertory Theater and worked with a comedy group called Spontaneous Combustion. To care for her daughter, she had to work as a bank teller, a bricklayer, and a funeral home assistant. She was also on welfare for a few years. During this period she went by the name "Whoopi Cushion," sometimes pronouncing her name "ku-SHON" as if it were French. After her mother pointed out how ridiculous the name sounded, Goldberg changed it.

Goldberg moved north to Berkeley, California, in the late 1970s and joined the Blake Street Hawkeyes Theater, a comedy troupe. This helped her develop powerful acting and comedic abilities and led to the creation of seventeen different characters for a one-woman show that she called *The Spook*





Whoopi Goldberg.

Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.

*Show*. She performed the show first on the West Coast, then toured the rest of the country and Europe in the early 1980s before ending up in New York City. These performances caught the attention of film director Mike Nichols (1931–), who offered to produce her show on Broadway in September 1984. In 1985 director Steven Spielberg (1946–) offered Goldberg the lead role in *The Color Purple*, her first film appearance. Goldberg received a Golden Globe Award and was nominated (her name was put forward for consideration) for an Academy Award for her performance.

### Social work

Goldberg's fortunes continued to rise. In addition to her film awards, she won a Grammy Award in 1985 for her comedy album *Whoopi Goldberg* and received an Emmy nomination the following year for her guest appearance on the television show *Moonlighting*. The increased exposure, recognition, and acceptance allowed Goldberg to pursue social activities, focusing on issues that affected her when she required public assistance, which she has tried to call attention to since her early days in show business.

Beginning in 1986, along with Billy Crystal (1947–) and Robin Williams (1952–), Goldberg hosted the annual *Comic Relief* benefit that raises money for the homeless through the Health Care for the Homeless project. Goldberg also appeared before Congress to oppose proposed cuts in federal welfare, in addition to speaking out on behalf of environmental causes, the nation's hungry, acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease that attacks the immune system), drug abuse awareness, and women's right to free choice. She has been recognized with several awards for her efforts.

This increased exposure, though, did not lead to increased success for Goldberg, as she went on to star in a series of poorly received movies, including *Jumpin' Jack Flash*, *Burglar*, *Fatal Beauty*, *The Telephone*, *Clara's Heart*, and *Homer and Eddie*. It seemed that as quickly as she had risen, she had fallen. Goldberg became the subject of gossip and rumors that Hollywood was ready to write her off. She remained steady, though, ignoring bad reviews and criticism. "I've just stopped listening to them," she told Paul Chutkow in

*Vogue*. "I've taken crazy movies that appeal to me. I don't care what other people think about it. If it was pretty decent when I did it, I did my job."

### **Ghost revives career**

Goldberg needed to find the right film to highlight her comic approach in combination with social and humanitarian (promoting human welfare) elements. Her chance came with the 1990 film *Ghost*. Although not all critics liked the film, most critical and popular response was positive, especially regarding Goldberg's performance as the flashy but heroic psychic, Oda Mae. She had spent six months persuading studio executives that she was perfect for the part, and her hard work paid off: *Ghost* made more money than any other film released in 1990. In addition, Goldberg won an Oscar for her performance, becoming only the second black female in the history of the Academy Awards to win such an honor.

Goldberg's next role was in a drama, *The Long Walk Home*. She also continued her television work. Beginning in the 1988 and 1989 season, she appeared off and on as a crew member on *Star Trek: The Next Generation*, and in 1992 she hosted her own talk show. In 1992 alone Goldberg appeared in three films: director Robert Altman's (1925–) *The Player*; the comedy *Sister Act*, one of the biggest box-office hits of the summer; and *Sarafina: The Movie*, a film version of the musical about black South African teenagers' struggle against apartheid (South Africa's policy of keeping the races separate). Goldberg also appeared in *Made in America*, *Sister Act II* (for which she was paid eight million dollars), *Corrina, Corrina*, and *Boys on the Side*.

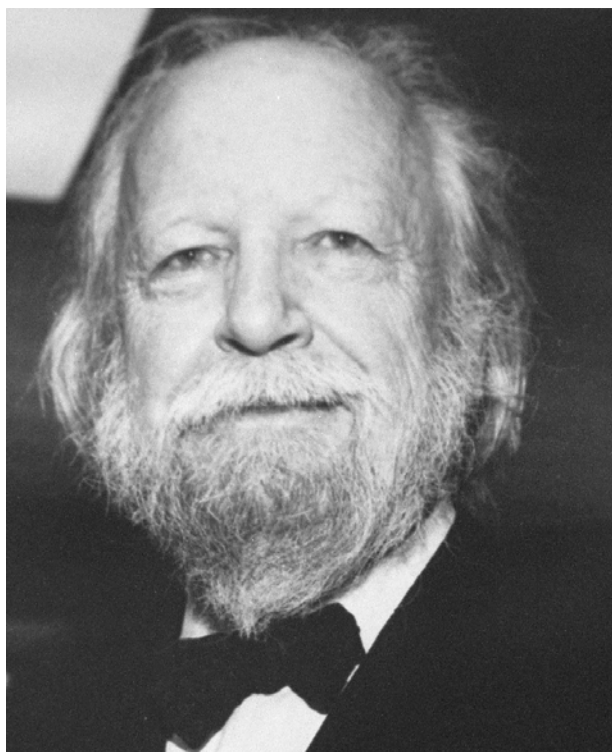
### **Academy Awards**

Goldberg took a break from acting to host the Academy Awards in 1994 and 1996, becoming the first African American and first female to host the event solo. More than one billion people worldwide saw the awards show and critics praised her performance. In 1996 the academy faced public protest by the Reverend Jesse Jackson (1941–) regarding the lack of African American voters and award nominees. Goldberg joked that she would have worn Jackson's ribbon of protest, but she knew he was not watching.

In 1997, after appearing in a comedy called *The Associate*, Goldberg left Hollywood and returned to theater, starring on Broadway in a production of *A Funny Thing Happened on the Way to the Forum*. She continued to appear in films, including *The Deep End of the Ocean* and *Girl, Interrupted*, both in 1999, and on television on the game show *Hollywood Squares*. She hosted the Academy Awards again in 1999 and 2002. In 2001 she received the Mark Twain Prize for American Humor from the Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts in Washington, D.C.

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William Golding.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

## WILLIAM GOLDING

**Born:** September 19, 1911

Saint Columb, Cornwall, England

**Died:** June 19, 1993

Perranarworthal, Cornwall, England

*English author*

**T**he winner of the 1983 Nobel Prize in Literature, William Golding is among the most popular and influential British authors to have emerged in the second half of the twentieth century. Gold-

ing's reputation rests primarily upon his first novel, *Lord of the Flies* (1954), which is consistently regarded as an effective and disturbing portrayal of the fragility of civilization.

### *Childhood and college years*

Golding was born in Saint Columb Minor in Cornwall, England, in 1911. His father, Alex, was a schoolmaster, while his mother, Mildred, was active in the Women's Suffrage Movement (the movement for women's right to vote). As a boy, his favorite authors included H. G. Wells (1866–1946), Jules Verne (1828–1905), and Edgar Rice Burroughs (1875–1950). Since the age of seven, Golding had been writing stories, and at the age of twelve he attempted to write a novel.

Golding remained an enthusiastic writer and, upon entering Brasenose College of Oxford University, abandoned his plans to study science, preferring to read English literature. At twenty-two, a year before taking his degree in English, Golding saw his first literary work published—a poetry collection simply titled *Poems*.

After graduating from Oxford in 1935, Golding continued the family tradition by becoming a schoolmaster in Salisbury, Wiltshire. His teaching career was interrupted in 1940, however, with the outbreak of World War II (1939–45). Lieutenant Golding served five years in the British Royal Navy and saw active duty in the North Atlantic, commanding a rocket launching craft.

### *Lord of the Flies*

Golding had enhanced his knowledge of Greek history and mythology by reading while at sea, and when he returned to his

post at Bishop Wordsworth's School in 1945, he began furthering his writing career. He wrote three novels, all of which went unpublished. But his frustration would not last long, when, in 1954, Golding created *The Lord of the Flies*. The novel was rejected by twenty-one publishers before Faber & Faber accepted the forty-three-year-old schoolmaster's book.

Initially, the tale of a group of schoolboys stranded on an island during their escape from war received mixed reviews and sold only modestly in its hardcover edition. But when the paperback edition was published in 1959, thus making the book more accessible to students, the novel began to sell briskly. Teachers, aware of the student interest and impressed by the strong theme and symbolism of the work, began assigning *Lord of the Flies* to their literature classes. As the novel's reputation grew, critics reacted by drawing scholarly reviews out of what was previously dismissed as just another adventure story.

The author's extremely productive output—five novels in ten years — and the high quality of his work established him as one of the late twentieth-century's most distinguished writers. This view of Golding was cemented in 1965, when the author was named a Commander of the British Empire.

### Later works

After the success of *Lord of the Flies*, Golding enjoyed success with other novels, including *Pincher Martin* (1957), *Free Fall* (1959), and *The Pyramid* (1967). The author's creative output then dropped drastically. He produced no novels and only a handful of novellas (short novels), short stories, and other occasional pieces.

In 1979 Golding returned with the publication of *Darkness Visible* which received mixed reviews. The author faced his harshest criticism to date with the publication of his 1984 novel *The Paper Men*, a drama about an aging, successful novelist's conflicts with his pushy, overbearing biographer. Departing briefly from fiction, Golding wrote a book containing essays, reviews, and lectures. *A Moving Target* appeared in 1982, one year prior to the author's receipt of the Nobel Prize in Literature.

William Golding died in England in 1993. A year after his death, *The Double Tongue* was released, published from a manuscript Golding completed before he died.

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## SAMUEL GOMPERS

**Born:** January 27, 1850

**London, England**

**Died:** December 13, 1924

**San Antonio, Texas**

*English-born American union leader and union organizer*

**T**he American labor leader Samuel Gompers was the most significant person in the history of the American labor movement (the effort of working people to improve their lives by forming organizations called unions). He founded and served as the first president of the American Federation of Labor.

### *Youth and education*

Samuel Gompers was born on January 27, 1850, in east London, England, to Solomon and Sarah Gompers. His family was Dutch-Jewish in origin and had lived in England for only a few years. The family was extremely poor, but at the age of six Gompers was sent to a free Jewish school, where he received the beginnings of an education practically unknown to poor people in his day. The education was brief, however, as Gompers began to work, first making shoes and then in his father's cigar-making trade. In 1863, when Gompers was thirteen, the family immigrated to the United States and settled in the slums of New York City. The family soon numbered eleven members, and Gompers again went to work as a cigar maker.

### *Cigar-makers' union*

Full of energy and naturally drawn to other people, Gompers joined many organizations in the immigrant world of New York. But from the start nothing was as important to him as the small Cigar-makers' Local Union No. 15, which he joined with his father in 1864. Gompers immediately rose to leadership of the group. At the age of sixteen he regularly represented his fellow workers when confronting their employers, and he discussed politics and economics with well-spoken workingmen many years older than himself.

This was a time of technological change in cigar making (as it was in practically every branch of American industry). Machines were being introduced that replaced many highly skilled workers. The cigar makers were distinguished, however, by the intelligence with which they studied their problems. The nature of their work—the quietness of the process of making cigars, for example—permitted and even encouraged discussion of economic questions, and this environment provided Gompers with an excellent kind of schooling. The most important influence upon his life was Ferdinand Laurrel, a once prominent Scandinavian socialist (someone who think goods and services should be owned and controlled by the government), who taught Gompers that workingmen should avoid both politics and unrealistic dreaming in favor of winning immediate “bread and butter” gains in their wages, hours of work, and working conditions.

In fact, Gompers had many contacts with socialists, though from his earliest days he had little time for their ideas. Basing his own thinking about unions on a “pure and simple” concrete approach, he built the Cigar-makers' International Union into a functioning organization despite modern technology and unsuccessful strikes (an event in which a group of workers stop working in an attempt to gain rights from their employer).

### *American Federation of Labor*

In 1881, with several other union leaders, Gompers helped to set up a loose organization of unions that, in 1886, became the American Federation of Labor (AFL). Founded during the height of the Knights of Labor, the AFL was different from the older

labor organization in nearly every way. Most importantly, the Knights wished for a society in which cooperation would govern the economy, whereas the AFL unions were interested only in improving the day-to-day material life of their members. The socialists' attempt to take control of the AFL in 1894 did succeed in removing Gompers from power for a year, but he was firmly back in control by 1895 and, if anything, more opposed to socialism in the unions than ever.

"Socialism holds nothing but unhappiness for the human race," Gompers said in 1918. "Socialism has no place in the hearts of those who would secure the fight for freedom and preserve democracy." Throughout his career he argued against the thriving Socialist Party. Although there were many reasons that socialist thought did not take root in American unions, Gompers's influence as the head of the labor movement for forty years was important.

Even if Gompers was hostile to the socialists, however, he was as devoted to the cause of unions as any other American labor leader before or since. He was the first national union leader to recognize and encourage the strike as labor's most effective weapon. In 1906 he defied a court order concerning a union activity and was sentenced to a year in jail, though he ended up spending only one night behind bars. The way in which Gompers spoke against greedy businessmen matched anything of his time. (Gompers first became known as a speaker and always delivered a speech well. He spoke widely for the cause of the AFL and, thanks to a quick mind, rarely lost in debate. However, none of his books was distinguished



Samuel Gompers.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

except his autobiography, *Seventy Years of Life and Labor* [1925].)

### ***A national figure***

Although the leader of a movement that lacked social respect, Gompers had good relations with several presidents and became something of an adviser to President Woodrow Wilson. In 1901 he was one of the founders of the National Civic Federation (an alliance of businessmen willing to put up with unions and moderate union leaders), and Wilson found it politically useful and worthwhile to have the support of the AFL during World War I (1914–1918; a war that

involved many nations in Europe and that the United States entered in 1917). Gompers supported the war energetically, attempting to stop AFL strikes while the war was being fought and speaking out against socialists and pacifists (people opposed to war as a way of solving disagreements). He served as president of the International Commission on Labor Legislation at the Versailles Peace Conference and on various other committees.

During the 1920s, though in failing health, Gompers served as a spokesman in Washington for the new Mexican government that had overthrown the old one, considering himself key in gaining American recognition of the new government. Mexican President Plutarco Elias Calles (1877–1945) received Gompers with high honors in 1924. Realizing that the end was near for him, however, Gompers returned early from the trip to Mexico and died in San Antonio, Texas, on December 13. True to his character, his last words were: “Nurse, this is the end. God bless our American institutions. May they grow better day by day.”

What had begun as useful for Gompers—acceptance of the capitalist system (in which goods and services are owned and controlled by private individuals) and working within it—had become his guiding principle. Indeed, he was one of the creators of the modern institutions that he referred to in his last words—for capitalism he won the loyalty of labor, and for labor he won a part in business decision making.

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## JANE GOODALL

**Born:** April 3, 1934

**London, England**

*English primatologist and scientist*

Jane Goodall was a pioneering English primatologist (a person who studies primates, which is a group of animals that includes human beings, apes, monkeys, and others). Her methods of studying animals in the wild, which emphasized patient observation over long periods of time of both social groups and individual animals, changed not only how chimpanzees (a kind of ape) as a species are understood, but also how studies of many different kinds of animals are carried out.

#### ***Childhood***

The older of two sisters, Jane Goodall was born on April 3, 1934, in London, England, into a middle-class British family. Her

father, Mortimer Herbert Morris-Goodall, was an engineer. Her mother, Vanna (Joseph) Morris-Goodall, was a successful novelist. When Goodall was about two years old her mother gave her a stuffed toy chimpanzee, which Goodall still possesses to this day. She was a good student, but she had more interest in being outdoors and learning about animals. Once she spent five hours in a hen-house so she could see how a hen lays an egg. She loved animals so much that by the time she was ten or eleven she dreamed of living with animals in Africa. Her mother encouraged Goodall's dream, which eventually became a reality.

When Goodall was eighteen she completed secondary school and began working. She worked as a secretary, as an assistant editor in a film studio, and as a waitress, trying to save enough money to make her first trip to Africa.

### ***An African adventure begins***

Jane Goodall finally went to Africa when she was twenty-three years old. In 1957 she sailed to Mombasa on the east African coast, where she met anthropologist Louis Leakey (1903–1972), who would become her mentor, or teacher. In Africa, Leakey and his wife, Mary, had discovered what were then the oldest known human remains. These discoveries supported Leakey's claim that the origins of the human species were in Africa, not in Asia or Europe as many had believed.

Leakey hoped that studies of the primate species most closely related to human beings—chimpanzees, gorillas, and orangutans—would shed light on the behavior of the human animal's ancestors. He chose Goodall for this work because he believed



*Jane Goodall.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

that as a woman she would be more patient and careful than a male observer, and that as someone with little formal training she would be more likely to describe what she saw rather than what she thought she should be seeing.

### ***Living among chimps***

In July 1960, twenty-six-year-old Jane Goodall set out for the first time for Gombe National Park in southeastern Africa to begin a study of the chimpanzees that lived in the forests along the shores of Lake Tanganyika. She had little formal training; still, she brought to her work her love of animals, a strong sense of determination, and a desire



for adventure. She thought at the time that the study might take three years. She ended up staying for more than two decades.

In her earliest days at Gombe, Goodall worked alone or with native guides. She spent long hours working to gain the trust of the chimpanzees, tracking them through the dense forests and gradually moving closer and closer to the chimps until she could sit among them—a feat that had not been achieved by other scientists. Her patience produced an amazing set of discoveries about the behaviors and social relations of chimpanzees.

Chimpanzees had been thought to be violent, aggressive animals with crude social arrangements. Researchers had given chimps numbers rather than names and had ignored the differences in personality, intelligence, and social skills that Goodall's studies revealed. Chimpanzees, Goodall showed, organized themselves in groups that had complex social structures. They were often loving and careful parents and also formed attachments to their peers. They hunted and ate meat. And they used simple tools—twigs or grasses that they stripped of leaves and used to get termites out of termite mounds. This discovery helped force scientists to give up their definition of human beings as the only animals that use tools.

In 1962 Leakey arranged for Goodall to work on a doctorate degree at Cambridge University, in England, which would give scientific weight to her discoveries. In 1965 she became the eighth person ever to receive a doctorate from Cambridge without having earned an undergraduate degree.

By 1964 the Gombe Stream Research Center had become the destination of choice

for graduate students and other scientists wishing to study chimpanzees or to learn Goodall's methods. The general public was also learning about Goodall's work through a series of articles in *National Geographic* magazine and later through *National Geographic* television specials. In 1964 Goodall married Hugo Van Lawick, a Dutch wildlife photographer who had come to Gombe at the invitation of Leakey to take pictures for the magazine. Goodall's son by that marriage, Hugo (more often referred to as Grub), was her only child.

### ***New discoveries***

The 1970s saw changes in Goodall's understanding of the chimpanzees and in the way in which research was carried out at Gombe. In 1974 what Goodall referred to as a "war" broke out between two groups of chimpanzees. One group eventually killed many members of the other group. Goodall also witnessed a series of acts of infanticide (the killing of an infant) on the part of one of the older female chimps. These appearances of the darker side of chimpanzee behavior forced her to adjust her interpretation of these animals as being basically gentle and peace loving.

In May 1975 rebels from Zaire, Africa, kidnapped four research assistants from the research center. After months of talks, the assistants were returned. Because of the continued risk of kidnappings, almost all of the European and American researchers left Gombe. Goodall continued to carry out her work with the help of local people who had been trained to conduct research.

### ***A chimp's true friend***

Later Goodall turned her attention to the problem of captive chimpanzees. Because

they closely resemble humans, chimpanzees have been widely used as laboratory animals to study human diseases. Goodall used her knowledge and fame to work to set limits on the number of animals used in such experiments and to convince researchers to improve the conditions under which the animals were kept. She also worked to improve conditions for zoo animals and for conservation of chimpanzee habitats (the places in the wild where chimps live). In 1986 she helped found the Committee for the Conservation and Care of Chimpanzees, an organization dedicated to these issues. She has even written children's books, *The Chimpanzee Family Book* and *With Love*, on the subject of treating animals kindly.

For her efforts Goodall has received many awards and honors, among them the Gold Medal of Conservation from the San Diego Zoological Society, the J. Paul Getty Wildlife Conservation Prize, and the National Geographic Society Centennial Award. In 2000 she accepted the third Gandhi/King Award for Non Violence at the United Nations. Much of Goodall's current work is carried on by the Jane Goodall Institute for Wildlife Research, Education, and Conservation, in Ridgefield, Connecticut. She does not spend much time in Africa anymore; rather, she gives speeches throughout the world and spends as many as three hundred days a year traveling.

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## BENNY GOODMAN

**Born:** May 30, 1909

**Chicago, Illinois**

**Died:** 1986

**New York, New York**

*American musician, bandleader, and clarinetist*

**B**enny Goodman was a great jazz clarinet player and the leader of one of the most popular big bands of the Swing Era (1935–1945). In fact, *Time* magazine dubbed him “the King of Swing.”

### **Early life**

Benjamin David Goodman was born in Chicago, Illinois, on May 30, 1909, into a large, poor Jewish family. His parents, who had moved to the United States from Eastern Europe, were Dora and David Goodman. Benny formally studied music at the famed Hull House (a settlement house that was originally opened by Jane Addams [1860–1935] to provide services to poor members of the community), and at the age of ten he was already a skilled clarinetist. At age twelve, appearing onstage in a talent contest, he did



*Benny Goodman.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

an imitation of the popular Ted Lewis. So impressed was bandleader Ben Pollack that five years later he sent for Goodman to join his band in Los Angeles, California. After three years with Pollack, Goodman left the band in New York City in 1929 to make it on his own. In 1934 he led his first band on a radio series called "Let's Dance" (which became the title of Goodman's theme song). The band also played at dance halls and made a handful of records.

### *The turning point*

In 1935, armed with songs developed by some of the great African American

arrangers, Goodman's band traveled the country to play their music. Not especially successful in most of its performances, the band arrived at the Palomar Ballroom in Los Angeles in a discouraged mood. The evening of August 21, 1935, began coolly. Then, desperate to wow the unimpressed audience, Goodman called for the band to launch into a couple of fast-paced crowd pleasers, and the reaction ultimately sent shock waves through the entire popular music world. Hundreds of people stopped dancing and massed around the bandstand, responding with enthusiasm.

That performance turned out to be not only a personal triumph for the band, but for swing music in general. Goodman's popularity soared; the band topped almost all the magazine and theater polls, their record sales were huge, they were given a weekly radio show, and they were featured in two big-budget movies. But an even greater triumph awaited—a concert at Carnegie Hall in New York that was to win respect for Goodman's music. The night of January 16, 1938, is now famous; the band outdid itself, improving on recorded favorites such as "King Porter Stomp" and "Don't Be That Way." The band finished the evening with a lengthy, classic version of "Sing, Sing, Sing."

### *Goodman the person*

Two of the finest musicians ever to work with Goodman were pianist Teddy Wilson (1912–1986) and vibraphonist-drummer Lionel Hampton (1909–2002). However, they played only in small-group arrangements because of the unwritten rule that did not allow white musicians and African American musicians to play together. Goodman was the first white bandleader to challenge segrega-

tion (keeping people of different races separate) in the music business, and as the rules eased he hired other African American greats.

Many top-notch musicians joined and left Goodman's band over the years, more so than in other bands. Most musicians found Goodman an unfriendly employer. He was said to be stern and stingy with money. Moreover, Goodman was referred to in music circles as "the Ray," because of his habit of glaring at any player guilty of a "clam" or "clinker" (a wrong note), even in rehearsal. An outstanding clarinetist who was equally at home performing difficult classical music, Goodman was not very patient with anything that was not technically perfect.

### Later years

After 1945 the clarinet was pushed into a minor role in bebop music, the new style of jazz that was becoming popular. Goodman struggled for a while to accept the new music, but in 1950 he decided to dissolve his band. From that time forward his public appearances were rare. They were mostly with small groups and almost always for television specials, recordings, or European tours. His most celebrated tour, however, was part of the first-ever cultural exchange with the Soviet Union. In 1962, at the request of the U.S. State Department, he went to the Soviet Union with a band. The trip was a smashing success and greatly helped American jazz become popular in Eastern Europe.

After his marriage in 1941, Goodman's home was New York City. His wife, Alice, with whom he had two daughters, died in 1978. Goodman maintained his habit of performing on occasion. In 1985 he made a surprise and, by all accounts, spectacular

appearance at the Kool Jazz Festival in New York. He died the following year of an apparent heart attack.

Goodman's ultimate contribution to jazz is still being debated. Much post-1940s jazz criticism has judged him to have been overrated compared to other jazz greats. Nonetheless, Goodman's technical mastery, polished tone, highly individual (and influential) solo style, and undeniable *swing* certainly have earned him a permanent place in jazz history.

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## MIKHAIL GORBACHEV

**Born:** March 2, 1931

**Privolnoe, Russia**

*Russian politician and president*

**M**ikhail Gorbachev achieved national recognition as member of the Communist Party, the dominant political party of the former Soviet



*Mikhail Gorbachev.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Union that believes in the common ownership of goods and services. In March 1985 the Soviet Communist Party elected him general secretary of the party and leader of the Soviet Union. He resigned in 1991 shortly after the fall of communism.

### *Early life*

Mikhail Sergeevich Gorbachev was born into a peasant family in the village of Privolnoe, near Stavropol, Soviet Union, on March 2, 1931. As a teenager, he worked driving farm machinery at a local machine-tractor station. Gorbachev's experience here undoubtedly educated him well about the

serious problems of food production and political administration in the countryside. He also became familiar with the control of the KGB (the Soviet secret police), knowledge which would serve him well in his future career.

In 1952 Gorbachev joined the Communist Party and began studies at the Moscow State University, where he graduated from the law division in 1955. He also met and married fellow student Raisa Titorenko, in 1953.

With Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin's (1879–1953) death, the Soviet Union began a period of political and intellectual unrest which paved the way for a major restructuring of the Soviet Union's political system and economic administration. For young party activists like Gorbachev this was a period of exciting changes and challenges.

After his graduation Gorbachev returned to Stavropol as an organizer for the Komsomol (Young Communist League) and began a successful career as a party administrator and regional leader. In 1962 he was promoted to the post of party organizer for collective and state farms in the Stavropol region and soon took on major responsibilities for the Stavropol city committee as well. Party leader Leonid Brezhnev (1906–1982) rewarded his ability by appointing him Stavropol first secretary in 1966, roughly equivalent to mayor.

### *Climbing the party ladder*

After gaining additional political training Gorbachev moved quickly to assume direction of the party in the entire Stavropol region. In 1970 he assumed the important post of first secretary for the Stavropol Territorial Party Committee. This position, which

is similar to a governor in the United States, proved a stepping stone to Central Committee membership and national recognition.

Gorbachev was assisted in his rise to national power by close associations with Yuri Andropov (1914–1984), who was also from the Stavropol region, and Mikhail Suslov, the party's principal ideologist. In 1978, at the request of Brezhnev, Gorbachev went to Moscow as a party secretary responsible for agricultural administration. Despite problems with agriculture in the Soviet Union at this time, Gorbachev gained a solid reputation as an energetic and informed politician. His activist style was just the thing to oppose most of the aging leaders in the Kremlin, a building in Moscow which houses the government.

The political rise of Yuri Andropov after the death of Leonid Brezhnev in January 1980 greatly strengthened the position of the up-and-coming Gorbachev as both men showed impatience with outdated practices and inefficiencies of the Soviet Union's economy. In October 1980, Gorbachev became a member of the ruling Politburo, the small group at the top of the Communist Party.

### *A new type of Soviet leader?*

As he took power in March 1985, Gorbachev brought a fresh new spirit to the Kremlin. Young, energetic and married to an attractive, stylish, and educated woman, he represented a new generation of Soviet leaders, free from the direct experiences of Stalin's terror which so hardened and corrupted many of his elders.

Gorbachev's first steps as head of the party were designed to improve economic productivity. He began an energetic campaign

against inefficiency and waste and indicated his intention to "shake up" lazy and ineffective workers in every area of Soviet life, including the party. He also revealed an unusual friendliness. Shortly after taking power Gorbachev also moved to develop greater rapport with ordinary citizens, taking to the streets on several occasions to discuss his views and making a number of well-publicized appearances at factories and other industrial institutions.

### *U.S. relations*

As Prime Minister Gorbachev also sought to establish better relations with the United States, which might allow some reduction in Soviet defense spending in favor of consumer goods. In November 1985 he met with President Reagan (1911–) in Geneva to discuss national and international problems. Little progress was made but both leaders agreed to hold another "summit" meeting in the United States in 1986.

When new tensions developed between the two powerful countries, the leaders agreed to hold a preliminary meeting at Reykjavik, Iceland, on October 11–12, 1986. But the clearest signs of improving Soviet-American relations came in 1988 when Gorbachev made a positive impression when he entered a crowd of spectators in New York City to shake hands with people. In May and June of the same year, President Reagan visited Moscow.

### *Internal conflicts*

Within the Soviet Union, Gorbachev promoted great political changes. His most important measure came in 1989 when he set up elections in which members of the Communist Party had to compete against oppo-

nents who were not party members. Later that same year, he called for an end to the special status of the Communist Party guaranteed by the Soviet Constitution. He also ended the Soviet military occupation of Afghanistan.

Two issues, however, caused growing difficulty for Gorbachev. First, there was the problem of nationalities, as the Soviet Union consisted of nearly one hundred different ethnic groups. Many of these groups began to engage in open warfare against each other and even more serious, some ethnic groups, like the Lithuanians and the Ukrainians began to call for outright independence. Second, the country's economy was sinking deeper into crisis. Both industrial and agricultural production were declining, and the old system, in which the economy ran under centralized control of the government, no longer seemed to work.

While Gorbachev wrestled with these problems, a powerful rival began to emerge. Once considered an ally, Boris Yeltsin (1931–) became the country's leading supporter of radical economic reform (improvement). Yeltsin formally left the Communist Party in 1990, something Gorbachev refused to do, and was elected president of the Russian Republic in June 1991. Gorbachev, on the other hand, had been made president of the Soviet Union without having to win a national election. Thus, Yeltsin could claim a greater degree of popular support.

### *Fall from power*

In August 1991 a group of Communist Party conservatives captured Gorbachev while he was on vacation in the Crimea and moved to seize power. Some of these men, like Prime Minister Valentin Pavlov, were individuals Gorbachev had put in power to balance

opposing political forces. But Yeltsin, not Gorbachev, led the successful resistance to the coup (takeover of the government), which collapsed within a few days. When Gorbachev returned to Moscow, he was overshadowed by Yeltsin, and there were rumors that Gorbachev himself had been involved in the coup.

By the end of 1991, the Soviet Union had fallen apart. The Ukraine and the Baltic states declared themselves as independent, and real power began to shift towards the leaders of those regions, among them Yeltsin, hero of the attempted coup and president of the Russian Republic. Gorbachev formally resigned his remaining political office on Christmas Day 1991.

In the spring of 1995, Gorbachev began touring factories in Russia, spoke to university students, and criticized President Yeltsin. He stopped just short of formally announcing his candidacy for the presidency in 1996. He wrote an autobiography, which was released in 1995 in Germany and in 1997 in the United States. Gorbachev's wife, Raisa, died of cancer in September of 1999.

On May 25, 2000, Gorbachev registered his Russian Social Democratic Party, saying he wanted to support liberal ideas. The party's registration by the Justice Ministry paved the way for it to contest future polls.

Like many historical figures, Gorbachev's role will be interpreted in varying ways. While a Russian factory worker stated in *Newsweek*, "He destroyed a great state . . . the collapse of the Soviet Union started with Gorbachev," some critics in the West saw the fall of Communism as "altogether a victory for common sense, reason, democracy and common human values."

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## BERRY GORDY JR.

**Born:** November 28, 1929

**Detroit, Michigan**

*African American businessman, songwriter, and entrepreneur*

**B**erry Gordy Jr. founded Motown Records in 1959. The record company grew into the most successful African American enterprise in the United States and was responsible for creating a new sound that changed popular music.

**Early life**

Berry Gordy Jr. was born on November 28, 1929, and was raised in Detroit, Michigan. He was not the first businessperson in the family; both parents worked for themselves, his father as a plastering contractor, his mother as an insurance agent. As a child Gordy was interested in music, and his song "Berry's Boogie" won a talent contest. However, he did not

receive much formal training in music—only a little on the piano and merely a week on the clarinet. Gordy dropped out of Northeastern High School during his junior year to pursue a career as a boxer. Between 1948 and 1951 he fought fifteen matches, twelve of which he won, but his boxing career was cut short when he was drafted to serve in the U.S. Army during the Korean War (1950–53; a war between North Korea and South Korea during which the United Nations and the United States helped defend South Korea).

**Enters the music business**

When Gordy's service in the army ended in 1953, he returned to Detroit and used the money he had saved from his military pay to open a record store called the Three-D Record Mart. His love for the jazz of Stan Kenton (1912–1979), Charlie Parker (1920–1955), and Thelonius Monk (1917–1982) influenced the records he tried to sell more than his customers' requests and his business soon failed.

Gordy worked for his father for a short period and then on an assembly line at the Ford Motor Company. He did not find the work interesting, and as he worked he wrote songs in his head, some of which were recorded by local singers. The record company Decca Records bought several of his songs, including "Reet Petite" and "Lonely Teardrops," and when Gordy compared the money he made for writing the songs to what Decca made from the minor hits, he realized that writing the songs was not enough. He needed to own them.

**Hits the big time**

At the suggestion of a friend, teenage singer William "Smokey" Robinson (1940–),



Gordy borrowed seven hundred dollars from his father and formed his own company to make and sell records. Motown Records was headquartered in a house on Detroit's West Grand Boulevard, where Gordy slept on the second floor and made records on the first. In time the company grew, with nine buildings on the same street housing its various branches, such as Jobete, music publishers; Hitsville, USA, a recording studio; International Talent Management, Inc.; the Motown Artist's Development Department (which showed Gordy's personal interest in his performers, as this was where they were taught to eat, dress, and act like professionals); and the Motown Record Corporation.

In 1960 Motown released the song "Shop Around," written by Smokey Robinson and performed by him and the Miracles. The song sold more than a million copies, and with that record Gordy's company launched the most successful and influential era in the history of popular music. What came to be called the Motown Sound was a musical form that combined classic African American gospel singing with the new rock-and-roll sound that was being shaped by Elvis Presley (1935–1977) and the British band the Beatles.

Motown Records made more than 110 number-one hit songs and countless top-ten records, including "Please Mr. Postman," "Reach Out, I'll Be There," "My Girl," "Stop! In the Name of Love," "For Once in My Life," "How Sweet It Is to Be Loved by You," "Heard It Through the Grapevine," "My Guy," "Dancing in the Streets," "Your Precious Love," "Where Did Our Love Go," "Baby Love," "I Hear a Symphony," "I Want You Back," and "I'll Be There." Just as good is the list of artists Gordy brought into the spotlight: Diana Ross (1944–) and the Supremes, the Jackson Five, Stevie Wonder (1950–), Smokey Robinson and the Miracles, the Four Tops, the Temptations, Gladys Knight (1944–) and the Pips, Tammi Terrell (1945–1970) and Marvin Gaye (1939–1984), the Marvelettes, Mary Wells (1943–1992), and Martha Reeves (1941–) and the Vandellas.

### *Troubles arise*

By the mid-1970s, though, some of the Motown artists had begun to resist Gordy's tight control and began to break up Gordy's "family" of stars. The first to leave was Gladys Knight and the Pips. In 1975 the Jackson Five announced that they would be moving to Epic Records when their Motown contract

expired. Although Gordy kept Stevie Wonder at Motown by promising him \$13 million over seven years in the famous "Wonderdeal" of 1975, Gordy's public statements usually expressed disappointment that his superstars came to value money over loyalty. This was heard often from Gordy when, in 1981, Diana Ross announced her move to RCA Records.

Ross's move was especially surprising and bitter for Gordy because in 1972 he had moved his headquarters to Los Angeles, California, to begin a career in film, not only for himself, but so he could turn Ross into a movie star. His first film was the 1972 Paramount release *Lady Sings the Blues*, the story of jazz singer Billie Holiday (1915–1959) starring Ross. The picture was nominated for five Academy Awards and took in more than \$8.5 million at the box office. In 1975 Gordy directed Ross in *Mahogany*, the story of an African American fashion model's rise to fame. Although the film did well at the box office, it was not nearly the critical success of *Lady Sings the Blues*. Other Gordy films were *The Bingo Long Traveling All Stars and Motor Kings* (1976), *Almost Summer* (1978), *The Wiz* (1978) starring Michael Jackson (1958–) and Diana Ross, and *The Last Dragon* (1985).

### ***Gives up his company***

In June 1988 Gordy sold his company to MCA, Inc. He kept control of Jobete, the music publishing operation, and Motown's film division, but he sold the record company for \$61 million. He told the newspaper *Daily Variety* that he wanted to make sure that the history of Motown remained alive.

Esther Edwards, Berry Gordy's sister, was also interested in preserving Motown's history. The brick house in Detroit once

named Hitsville, USA, became the site of the Motown Museum thanks in large part to Edwards. She had saved hundreds of boxes of Motown items, including original music scores, posters, and photographs, and until 1988 most of them were stuck to the walls with thumbtacks. In an effort to have the collection preserved, Michael Jackson, whose ties to Berry were still strong in 1990, donated \$125,000 to the Motown Museum.

In late 1994 a plan was announced to make a tribute album to Gordy. Even though Gordy was oftentimes recognized as an entrepreneur, he was first and foremost a songwriter. Singers who signed on to sing some of Gordy's songs on the tribute album included Diana Ross, the Four Tops, the Temptations, and Smokey Robinson. In 2000, Gordy gave \$750,000 to the Rhythm and Blues Foundation in order to help those pioneers of rhythm and blues in need. Gordy's talents as a songwriter and entrepreneur and his huge contribution to popular music were recognized in 2001, when he was inducted into the Independent Music Hall of Fame.

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AL  
GORE

**Born:** March 31, 1948

**Washington, D.C.**

*American vice president, senator, and congressman*

**A**l Gore, U.S. representative, senator, and forty-fifth vice president of the United States, lost one of the closest presidential elections in history, in 2000, to George W. Bush (1946–). Gore is known for his strong interest in conservation and has spent much of his time in public office working to preserve and protect the environment.

### ***A lot to live up to***

Albert Gore, Jr., was born in Washington, D.C., on March 31, 1948. His father, Albert Gore, Sr. (1907–1998), served in the House and the Senate for nearly three decades. His mother, Pauline (LaFon) Gore, was one of the first women to graduate from the law school at Vanderbilt University. As the son of a senator, Gore learned at an early age what it was like to live in the public eye. This gave him a sense of caution that made him seem mature beyond his years.

Gore received a bachelor's degree, with honors, in government from Harvard University in 1969. He then served as an army reporter during the Vietnam War (1955–75; a civil war in which South Vietnam, with the help of the United States, was fighting against Communist forces in North Vietnam). During the war, on May 19, 1970, Al Gore married his college sweetheart, Mary Elizabeth "Tipper" Aitcheson. The couple eventually had four children.

After returning from Vietnam, Gore went on to work as a reporter in Nashville, Tennessee. He was also a home builder, a land developer, and a livestock and tobacco farmer. He went back to school, studying philosophy (the search for an understanding of the world and a human being's place in it) and law at Vanderbilt University.

### ***Politics calls***

In 1976 Gore decided to run for a seat in the U.S. House of Representatives. With his famous name, as well as running in the district that had sent his father to Congress for many terms, he beat eight other candidates in the primary election and went on to win in the general election. He ran successfully in the three following elections. Gore received some early attention in 1980 when he was assigned to the House Intelligence Committee studying nuclear weapons. He researched and wrote out a detailed plan to reduce the number of nuclear weapons, which was published in the February 1982 issue of *Congressional Quarterly*. He also focused on health- and environment-related matters. He stressed the future usefulness of new technologies and computer development. In 1984 Gore campaigned for a seat in the U.S. Senate and won by a wide margin.

In 1988 Gore decided to enter the race for the presidency. He was only thirty-nine years old. He was criticized for failing to develop a national theme for his campaign and for changing positions on issues. He had some early success in primary elections in the spring, winning more votes than any other candidate in southern states. However, he obtained only small percentages of votes in other states and withdrew from the race in mid-April. Two years later he won election to

a second term in the U.S. Senate. He chose not to run for the presidency in 1992 because of family matters. His son had been hit by a car and was seriously injured.

It was during this time that Gore wrote the book *Earth in the Balance: Ecology and the Human Spirit*, which expressed his concerns, ideas, and recommendations on conservation and the global environment. In the book he wrote about his own personal and political experiences and legislative actions on environmental issues. His feelings about the environment are best expressed in this statement from the book: “We must make the rescue of the environment the central organizing principle for civilization.”

### ***Surprising turn of events***

In the summer of 1992, Bill Clinton (1946–) selected Gore as his running mate (vice presidential candidate). The choice surprised many people because it ended a long-standing pattern of candidates choosing running mates to “balance the ticket,” that is, by choosing running mates of different ages or from different areas of the country. Both men were about the same age, came from the same region, and had similar reputations and political viewpoints. Clinton’s idea was to project a new generation of leadership as a campaign theme. Gore provided balance for Clinton with his experience in foreign and defense policy, his knowledge of environmental and new technology issues, and his image as an honest family man.

The highlight for many who followed the campaigns of 1992 was a series of debates, one of which involved Gore and his opponents, Republican Dan Quayle (1947–)



*Al Gore.*

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and Independent James B. Stockdale (1923–). The debates were marked by moments of comedy, as Quayle and Gore argued over the wording of Gore’s book *Earth in the Balance*. Stockdale admitted that he had turned off his hearing aid. Quayle attacked Gore’s record of environmental concerns, claiming Gore was placing endangered species (animals that are in danger of disappearing from the earth) over people’s jobs. Gore argued that a well-run environmental program would create jobs while preserving nature.

Clinton and Gore won the election, and Gore was inaugurated (sworn in) as the

forty-fifth vice president on January 20, 1993. At the age of forty-four, he became one of the youngest U.S. vice presidents in history. Clinton and Gore were reelected in 1996. During his time as vice president, Gore continued to focus on environmental concerns. In 1997 the White House launched an effort, initiated by Gore, to start producing a "report card" on the health of the nation's ecosystems. (An ecosystem is made up of a community of plants and animals that share a certain area, and the non-living elements in that area, such as oxygen, soil, water, and sunlight.)

In 1997 Gore's reputation was damaged when he admitted to making fund-raising telephone calls from the White House during the 1996 presidential campaign. Gore held a press conference to defend his actions, saying he had done nothing illegal. Gore was also criticized when, during a trip to China, he raised his glass and proposed a toast to an official named Li Peng (1928–). Li Peng had been involved with the Tiananmen Square Massacre of 1989, when soldiers killed thousands of students and workers who were demonstrating for democracy in Beijing, China.

### ***Failed bid***

Still, as Clinton's second term was winding down in August 2000, the Democratic Party formally named Gore as its choice to run for president. Gore revealed a long-range economic plan that he claimed would balance the budget, reduce the national debt and keep interest rates low while creating new opportunities for the middle class. However, after a long campaign and legal challenges to the Florida

vote count that delayed the official result, Gore lost to Texas governor George W. Bush (1946–) in one of the closest presidential contests in American history.

Despite Gore's loss in the 2000 presidential election, he continues to be an active and well-respected political figure. Many believe that the 2000 election was not Gore's last attempt at the presidency.

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**JAY**  
**GOULD**

**Born:** May 27, 1836

**Roxbury, New York**

**Died:** December 2, 1892

**New York, New York**

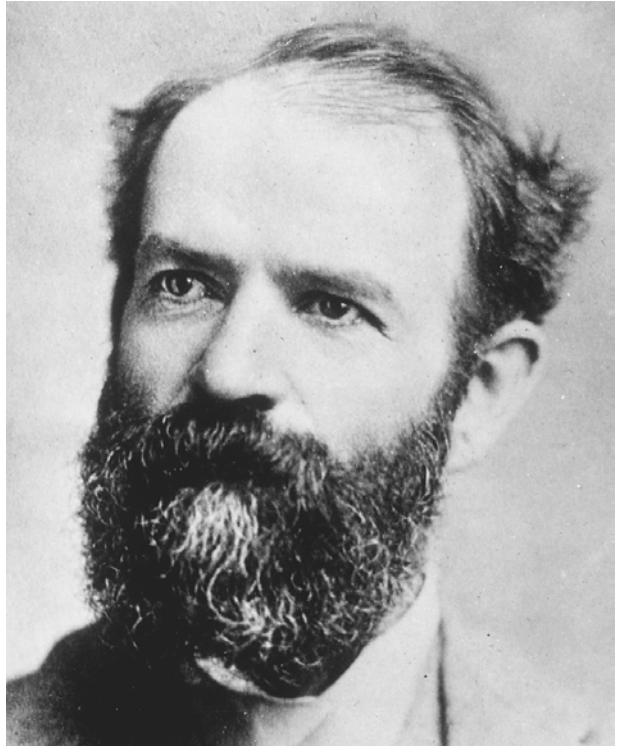
*American financier and businessman*

American financier and railroad builder Jay Gould made a fortune by controlling the price of the stocks he bought as well as the stock market itself. He later became one of the shrewdest businessmen in American industry.

### *Early life*

Jayson Gould was born in Roxbury, New York, on May 27, 1836, the son of John Gould and Mary More. His father was a farmer and a storekeeper, and Jay, as a small boy, grew up on a farm. He realized at a young age, however, that farm work was not to his liking. He received some education in a local school. Later, while working in his father's store, he taught himself surveying (mapping land) and mathematics at night. When he was just sixteen he started a survey business. Between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one he helped prepare maps of New York's southern counties. At twenty-one Gould invested five thousand dollars, and he and a partner opened a business tanning leather in northern Pennsylvania.

Gould then moved to New York City, where he became a leather merchant in 1860. Before long, however, he found his place on Wall Street, the financial center of the United States. In name he was a stockbroker (a person who buys and sells stocks for others), but really he was a speculator (a person who buys and sells stocks in hopes of profiting by correctly guessing their future prices). Gould quickly mastered the art of managing a business, of stock trading, and of manipulation (causing the price of a stock to change for personal gain). He traded in the stocks of his own companies, using banks he was associated with to finance his speculations, all the



*Jay Gould.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

while bribing legislators and judges. From 1867 to 1872 he was a power and a terror on Wall Street.

### *Erie war*

In 1867 Gould was already on the board of directors (the controlling committee of a company) of the Erie Railroad, which was having financial difficulties. He set out to control the railroad and to push its lines westward as far as Chicago, Illinois, and to defeat industrialist Cornelius Vanderbilt's (1794–1877) effort to acquire this potential competitor. In the "Erie war" with Vanderbilt in 1868, Gould issued one hundred thousand shares of new

Erie stock, using illegal means. He then went to Albany, New York, to bribe legislators to “legalize” the action. Vanderbilt discovered he had met his match and settled, receiving \$1 million and leaving the Erie Railroad to Gould.

Gould then began to expand the Erie, which vastly increased its debt. Meanwhile, he traded in Erie stock and skillfully made a lot of money before the railroad had to go out of business because of financial problems in 1875.

### ***Buying gold to sell wheat***

As part of the Erie’s move westward, Gould obtained control of the Wabash, a railroad that carried wheat. To improve the fortunes of the Wabash, Gould hit on the scheme of pushing up the price of gold, thus weakening the value of the U.S. dollar, and thereby encouraging foreign merchants to buy more wheat.

In the summer of 1869 Gould secretly began buying gold on the free market—hoping the U.S. Treasury (the main financial institution of the federal government) would not sell its gold. He ran the price up to where it was on September 24, 1869, now known as Black Friday because it was a day that saw a serious financial emergency. Then the U.S. Treasury, realizing that Gould had tricked it, started selling gold, and the price dropped significantly. A panic hit Wall Street, sending the price of all stocks down. Gould had speculated not only in gold but also in stocks and he lost a fortune. In 1871 and 1872, however, he made another.

Once again a man of money, Gould moved his operations westward into the Wabash, the Texas and Pacific, the Missouri

Pacific, and the Union Pacific Railroads. His operations in the last two railroads demonstrate his methods well. He bought their stocks when their prices were low during the depression (a time when a country’s economy is unhealthy) of 1873, obtaining control of both railroads. He also acquired the stocks of other, smaller railroads he wanted to add to the two main systems. Then he forced up the prices of the two main railroads. When the stock market recovered from 1879 to 1884, he sold the railroad stocks at prices far greater than what he had paid for them, making yet another large fortune.

### ***Manipulator turned businessman***

Gould was forced out of the Wabash and the Union Pacific Railroads in the early 1880s. He then turned his complete attention to the Missouri Pacific Railroad (of which he had gained control in 1879) and built it into a great power. He acquired new railroad lines and independent companies, used stock-market profits for financing, and waged a relentless war on competitors. His biographer, Julius Grodinsky, wrote that Gould was changed “from a trader into a business leader of national proportions.” From 1879 to 1882 Gould added twenty-five hundred miles to the railroad at a cost of about \$50 million. Between 1885 and 1889 he again gained control of the Wabash and the Texas and Pacific Railroads, changed how they were organized, and tied them into his Missouri Pacific system.

At the same time Gould strengthened the other two elements that made up his wealth. One was the Manhattan Elevated Railroad of New York, which he created as a monopoly of New York City’s rapid transit system. The second was the Western Union Telegraph Com-

pany. Gould had bought the insignificant American Union Telegraph Company in 1879, joined it with Western Union in 1881, and seven years later added the telegraph network of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. By the end of the 1880s Western Union had no real competitor in the two important businesses of railroad telegraphy and sending Associated Press stories to member newspapers. Western Union was one of the most profitable companies in the country. Gould died in New York on December 2, 1892, leaving the management of his properties to his son George Jay Gould.

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## STEPHEN JAY GOULD

**Born:** September 10, 1941

New York, New York

**Died:** May 20, 2002

New York, New York

*American paleontologist, scientist, and author*

The American paleontologist (a scientist who studies fossil remains of life from long ago) Stephen Jay Gould was awarded the 1975 Schuchert Award by the Paleontological Society for his work in evolutionary (study of the process of change in the growth of a life group) theory. His work gave answers to the missing pieces in Charles Darwin's (1809–1882) transitional questions. He was also the author of several books popularizing current scientific issues.

### Early life

Stephen Jay Gould was born on September 10, 1941, in New York City, the son of Leonard and Eleanor (Rosenberg) Gould. His father was a court reporter and part-time, unpaid naturalist (student of nature). Leonard Gould was a self-taught man who took his son to the American Museum of Natural History when the boy was five years old. It was here that the young Gould saw his first dinosaur, a *Tyrannosaurus rex*, and decided that he was going to devote his life to the study of geologic (the history of the earth based on the record of rocks) periods. With the support of his mother, an artist, and three well-remembered elementary school teachers, Gould was reading about evolution by age eleven. In high school he encountered the ongoing battle between creationism (a Biblical explanation of how life forms developed) and evolution as Darwin explained it. Darwin remained one of Gould's personal heroes.

After a summer at the University of Colorado in Boulder, Gould received his education at Antioch College in Yellow Springs, Ohio, graduating in 1963. He then moved on to graduate school in evolutionary biology and paleontology at Columbia University,





Stephen Jay Gould.

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where he remained for two years. He married Deborah Lee, an artist, on October 3, 1965, then left to take a job in 1966 at Antioch College as professor of geology. The following year he moved to Cambridge, Massachusetts, to take an assistant professorship at Harvard University. In that same year he finished his doctoral work, completing his degree program from Columbia. In 1971 he was promoted to associate professor, and in 1973 to full professor of geology. He also became curator (a person who oversees an exhibit or show) of invertebrate (species without a backbone) paleontology at Harvard's Museum of Comparative Zoology. At Harvard he widened

his study of the speciation (the development of a new species) and evolution of land snails in the West Indies.

### *Scientific contributions*

Gould was one of the founders of the school of evolution called "punctuated equilibrium." He argued that evolution proceeds quite rapidly at crucial points, with speciation occurring almost immediately. This could be due to quite sudden genetic changes. His favorite example was the panda's "thumb," a modification (adjustment) of the wrist bone that allows pandas to strip leaves from bamboo shoots. Such a transformation must have occurred all at once, he reasoned, or it would not have been preserved by natural selection (Darwin's explanation of how a species changes to meet its needs over centuries) since it had no useful function in a basic stage. This process would account for the lack of transitional (middle) forms throughout the fossil record, a problem Darwin grieved over but expected to be corrected by future paleontologists. Gould's scientific research and conclusions offer that solution.

### *Second career*

In addition to Gould's work as a serious professional paleontologist, he spent much time trying to make science understandable to untrained readers as well as to scholars (trained students). As a popular writer and amateur historian of science, Gould concentrated upon the issues of science and culture.

In *The Mismeasure of Man* Gould gave an explanation of the misuse of intelligence testing. Gould admitted that human intelligence has a specific location in the brain and that it

can be measured by a standard number score. He argued, however, that any efforts to label groups as having inferior or superior intelligence based upon these measurements mark a misuse of scientific data and an abuse of the scientific process.

In 1981 Gould served as an expert witness at a trial in Little Rock, Arkansas, which challenged a state law ordering the teaching of creation science as well as evolution. Gould's testimony argued that the theories of creationism are contradicted by all available scientific evidence and therefore should not be considered scientific. Due to this testimony, creationism was recognized as a religion and not a science. During that same year, Gould was awarded a prose fellows award from the MacArthur Foundation.

### **Personal triumphs**

In July 1982 Gould was told he had mesothelioma, a particularly deadly form of cancer. He recovered from his illness and the treatment, but found that he had to continue his work with a new sense of urgency.

Gould used his earned place in biology to argue against one of its central ideas—biological determinism (the belief that individual differences are biologically caused and therefore unchangeable)—and he used his literary skills to make the debate popular. He received important recognition for his work in both areas. In 1975 he was given the Schuchert Award by the Paleontological Society for his original work in evolutionary theory. For his book, *The Panda's Thumb*, he received two awards: the Notable Book citation from the American Library Association in 1980 and the American Book Award in Science for 1981. Likewise, he received two

awards for his other major work, *The Mismeasure of Man*: the National Book Critics Circle Award for general nonfiction in 1981 and the American Book Award nomination in science for 1982.

Gould was also a National Science Foundation grantee. He was a member of several scientific societies—American Association for the Advancement of Science, American Society of Naturalists, Paleontological Society, Society for the Study of Evolution, Society of Systematic Zoology, and Sigma Xi. In 1999 he assumed the presidency of the American Association of the Advancement of Science. His essay collection, *The Lying Stones of Marrakech*, was published by Harmony Books in April 2000.

As the author of more than two hundred evolutionary essays collected in eight volumes Gould was a publishing phenomenon, with topics such as evolution, his battle with cancer, Edgar Allan Poe, shells, why there are no .400 hitters in baseball, and the millennium (period of a thousand years). In an easy-to-read way Gould explained complex ideas in simple, understandable language that bridged the gap between scholars and nonscholars alike. After thirty years of writing for *Natural History* Gould said he was closing his writing career with his essay collection, *I Have Landed: The End of Beginning in Natural History*.

Gould lived in Cambridge, Massachusetts, with his wife and two children, Jesse and Ethan. He was a talented singer, with a love for Gilbert and Sullivan operettas (romantic, comic operas). His love of life was evident in *The Flamingo's Smile*: "I could not dent the richness in a hundred lifetimes, but I simply must have a look at a few more of

those pretty pebbles.” Stephen Jay Gould died of cancer in New York City on May 20, 2002.

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## KATHARINE GRAHAM

**Born:** June 16, 1917

New York, New York

**Died:** July 17, 2001

Boise, Idaho

*American publisher*

The renowned publisher Katharine Graham took over the management of the *Washington Post* after the death of her husband. She quickly guided the *Post* to national prominence while expanding her publishing empire.

### ***Early life***

Katharine Meyer Graham was born in New York City on June 16, 1917, the fourth of five children born to Eugene Meyer, a banker, and Agnes Elizabeth (Ernst) Meyer, an author and generous contributor to charity. In 1933, when Katharine was still a student at the Madeira School in Greenway, Virginia, her father bought the dying *Washington Post* for \$875,000. Already retired, Meyer

purchased the paper because he had grown restless and wanted a voice in the nation's affairs. His hobby turned into the capitol's leading paper.

From an early age Katharine Meyer showed an interest in publishing. At the Madeira School she worked on the student newspaper. In 1935 she entered Vassar College, but the following year transferred to the University of Chicago (Illinois), which she regarded as a more exciting campus. Her father mailed her the daily *Post* to keep her connected. The *Washington Post* was her summer job throughout college. Graduating with a bachelor's degree in 1938, she went to San Francisco, California, to take a job as a waterfront reporter for the *San Francisco News*. She returned to Washington a year later and joined the editorial staff of the *Post*, where she also worked in the circulation department (department in charge of keeping track of the number of papers needed for subscribers and routes).

### ***Adulthood***

On June 5, 1940, she married Philip L. Graham, a Harvard Law School graduate and clerk for Supreme Court Justice Felix Frankfurter. Her husband entered the army during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between Germany, Japan, and Italy—the Axis Powers—and Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States—the Allies) and she gave up reporting to move with him from base to base. When he was sent overseas, Katharine returned to her job at the *Post*.

After his discharge in 1945, Eugene Meyer persuaded Philip Graham to join the *Washington Post* as associate publisher. Meyer,

who had a warm relationship with his son-in-law, turned the business over to the Grahams in 1948 for one dollar. Philip Graham helped his father-in-law build the business, acquiring the *Post's* competitor, the *Washington Times Herald*, in 1954. In 1961 he purchased *Newsweek* magazine for a sum estimated to be between eight and fifteen million dollars. He also expanded the radio and television operations of the company, and in 1962 he helped to set up an international news service despite his growing mental shakiness.

### *Tragedy to triumphs*

In 1963 Philip Graham's mental illness led to his suicide. His public success had done little to help his mental illness. Katharine took over the presidency of the company. A recognized Washington woman who had devoted her time to raising her daughter and three sons, she had never lost her interest in the affairs of the family business. She studied the operations, asked questions, consulted with old friends such as James Reston (1909–1995) and Walter Lippmann (1889–1974), and made key decisions to bring in skilled journalists to improve the quality of the paper. She selected Benjamin C. Bradlee (1921–), the Washington bureau chief for *Newsweek*, as managing editor in 1965. (He later became executive editor.)

During the 1970s, Graham backed Bradlee when the *Post* began making news as well as reporting it. Graham was sincere in her commitment to provide accurate reporting. An example of this is her many visits to army bases during the Vietnam War (1954–75; a war in which the United States aided South Vietnam in a failed attempt to try and stop a Communist North Vietnam takeover). Her



Katharine Graham.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

commitment led to a controversy over constitutional rights in June 1971. The *Post*, along with the *New York Times*, struggled with the government over the right to publish sections of a classified Pentagon study of U.S. military involvement in Vietnam, which was compiled during President Lyndon Johnson's (1908–1973) administration. A court order to stop the publication of the documents led to a U.S. Supreme Court call for a decision. In a decision judged a major victory for freedom of the press, the Court upheld the papers' right to publish the "Pentagon Papers."

Further controversy followed in June 1972, when an investigative reporting team,

Carl Bernstein (1944–) and Bob Woodward (1943–), began to probe the break-in at the Democratic National Headquarters in the Watergate apartment complex. Their articles in the *Post* linked the break-in to a larger pattern of illegal activities, which led to the blame of over forty members of the Nixon administration and to the resignation of President Richard Nixon (1913–1994) in August 1974.

It was newsbreaks like these that granted Graham status as the most powerful woman in publishing. As chairman and principal owner of the Washington Post Company, she controlled the fifth largest publishing empire in the nation. In the period from 1975 to 1985 profits grew better than 20 percent annually.

### ***Final years***

In 1979 Graham turned the title of publisher over to her son Donald. But she remained active in all areas of the business, from advising on editorial policy (opinions the paper would stand behind) to making plans for not only the *Post* and *Newsweek*, but also the *Trenton Times*, four television stations, and 49 percent interest in a paper company. In Washington she was an impressive presence. Heads of state, politicians, and leaders in journalism and the arts gathered at her Georgetown home and for weekends at her farm in northern Virginia.

Under Graham's leadership the *Washington Post* grew in influence until it was judged as one of the two best newspapers in the country. It was read and consulted by presidents and prime ministers in this country and abroad and had a powerful influence on political life. At the same time the *Post*, which boasts a circulation (the number of copies sold or delivered) of 725,000, serves as a

hometown paper for a general audience who enjoyed the features, cartoons, and advice columns.

Graham also became an award-winning author in her later years. In 1997 she published her memoirs, *Personal History*, which earned her a Pulitzer Prize for Biography in 1998.

Katharine Graham was described as a "working publisher." Determined to preserve the family character of the business, she took up the reins after the death of her husband and worked hard not only to build but to improve her publishing empire. A forceful and courageous publisher, she knew when to rely on the expert advice of professionals and allowed her editors maximum responsibility. At the same time she strengthened her publications through her willingness to spend money to attract top talent in journalism and management.

On July 17, 2001, Katharine Graham died in Boise, Idaho, leaving the nation grieving for one of its best-loved female publishers. Katharine's impact on America was evident in the televised National Cathedral funeral watched by American citizens far and wide. She was eulogized (remembered after death) by a large array of public figures, ranging from former first lady Nancy Reagan (1921–) and former secretary of state Henry Kissinger (1923–) to Noor Al Hussein (1951–), queen of Jordan. The one quality that each highlighted in Katharine's life was her ability to maintain friendships despite holding a different viewpoint. Katharine Graham had a personal style that is rare in political circles.

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## MARTHA GRAHAM

**Born:** May 11, 1894

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

**Died:** April 1, 1991

New York, New York

*American dancer, choreographer, and teacher*

**M**artha Graham, American dancer, choreographer (one who creates and arranges dance performances), and teacher, is considered one of the major figures of modern dance.

### *Early life*

Martha Graham was born in a suburb of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, on May 11, 1894, one of George and Jane Beers Graham's three daughters. Her father was a doctor who treated people with nervous disorders. When she was ten years old, and after one of her sisters developed asthma (a breathing problem), the family moved to California because the weather was better. Graham became interested in studying dance after she saw Ruth St. Denis (c. 1880–1968) perform in Los Angeles, California, in 1914. Her parents did not

approve of her becoming a dancer, so she enrolled in the Cumnock School, a junior college.

Graham's father died in 1914, after which she felt free to pursue her dream. After graduating from Cumnock, she enrolled in the Denishawn Studio, a dancing school operated by Ruth St. Denis and Ted Shawn (1891–1972). Graham had never had a dance lesson up to that point, but the small, quiet, shy, but hardworking girl impressed Shawn and toured with his troupe in a production of *Xochitl*, based on an Indian legend. In 1923 Graham left this company to do two years of solo dancing for the Greenwich Village Follies.

### *Becomes dance instructor*

In 1925 Graham became dance instructor at the Eastman School of Music and Theater in Rochester, New York. She began experimenting with modern dance forms. "I wanted to begin," she said, "not with characters or ideas but with movement." She rejected the traditional steps of classical ballet; she wanted the dancing body to be related to natural motion and to the music. She experimented with what the body could do based on its own structure, developing what was known as "percussive movements."

Graham's first dances were performed on a bare stage with only costumes and lights. The dancers' faces were tight, their hands stiff, and their costumes short. Later she added more scenery and different costumes for effect. The music was modern and usually composed just for the dance. Isadora Duncan (1878–1927), the first modern dancer, had used music to inspire her works, but Graham used music to make her works more dramatic.



Martha Graham.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Graham's process of creation usually began with what she called a "certain stirring." Inspiration might come from a classical myth, an event in American history, a story from the Bible, historical figures, current social problems, writings, poems, or paintings. She would then develop a dramatic situation or character to express the feeling or idea. She then found music, or asked for new music from her longtime collaborator (cocreator), Louis Horst, to maintain the inspiration while she created movements to express it. The purpose of Graham's dance was to bring about an increased awareness of life and a greater understanding of the nature of man. Dance was to her an "inner emotional experience."

Graham introduced a number of other new features to modern dance. She established the use of moving scenery, used props as symbols, and combined speech with dancing. She was also the first to integrate her group, using African Americans and Asians in her regular company. She replaced the traditional ballet folk dress with either a straight, dark, long shirt or the common leotard (a tight, one-piece garment worn by dancers). Using the stage, the floor, and the props as part of the dance itself, she produced a whole new language of dance. In 1926 Graham introduced this new language in her first solo recital in New York City. Her first large group piece, *Vision of the Apocalypse*, was performed in 1929. Her most important early work was a piece called *Heretic*.

### Popular success

After Graham's performance as the lead role in composer Igor Stravinsky's (1882–1971) American premiere of *Rite of Spring* (1930), Graham toured the United States for four years (1931–35) in the production *Electra*. During this trip she became interested in the American Indians of the Southwest. One of the first products of this interest was *Primitive Mysteries*. Her increasing interest in the American past was seen in her dance based on the lives of American pioneer women, *Frontier* (1935), and in her famous *Appalachian Spring* (1944). In 1932 she became the first dancer to receive a Guggenheim fellowship (an award to promote artistic research and creation), and she danced for President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945) at the White House in 1937.

Graham founded the Dance Repertory Theater in New York City in 1930. She also

helped establish the Bennington School of Arts at Bennington College in Vermont, where her teaching made Bennington the center of experimental dance in America. With the later establishment of the Martha Graham School of Contemporary Dance in New York City, she taught a large number of modern dancers who went on to spread her ideas and style to the rest of the world.

### **Later years**

Graham danced her last role in 1969, but she continued to choreograph. In 1976 she received the Presidential Medal of Freedom. A year before her death, in 1990, she choreographed *Maple Leaf Rag*, a show that featured music by Scott Joplin (1868–1917) and costumes by Calvin Klein (1942–). Her name is still linked with modern dance in many people's minds. Martha Graham died on April 1, 1991, known as one of the twentieth century's revolutionary artists.

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## CARY GRANT

**Born:** January 18, 1904  
**Bristol, England**

**Died:** November 29, 1986

**Davenport, Iowa**

*English-born American actor*

Hollywood legend Cary Grant won audiences the world over with his charm and sophistication as an actor. Grant created a light, comic style that many have tried to imitate but none have surpassed. In seventy-two films made over four decades, Grant served as both a romantic ideal for women and a dashing role model for men.

### **Early life as Archie Leach**

Cary Grant was born Archibald Alexander Leach on January 18, 1904, in Bristol, England. His parents, Elias and Elsie Leach, were poor, and they quarreled often as they struggled to raise their only child. Grant found escape from the family tension in the newly emerging "picture palaces." He recalled in a *Ladies Home Journal* (1963) interview that "those Saturday matinees free from parental supervision were the high point of my week."

At the age of ten Grant was told that his mother had left for a seaside resort. In reality she had been sent to a nearby mental institution for a nervous breakdown. She remained there for twenty years. Grant was an adult before he learned of his mother's true whereabouts. "There was a void in my life," Grant said of the lost time with mother, "a sadness of spirit that affected each daily activity with which I occupied myself in order to overcome it."

### **Decision to act**

Through a scholarship Grant attended a secondary school called Fairfield Academy





*Cary Grant.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

in Somerset, England. While at the school he became interested in the theater and in theatrical lighting. It was at the Bristol (England) Hippodrome vaudeville (traveling variety entertainment) theater that Grant realized just how he would escape his worry-filled working-class environment. After being allowed backstage during a Saturday matinee, Grant decided to become an actor. "I suddenly found my inarticulate self in a land of smiling, jostling people wearing all sorts of costumes and doing all sorts of clever things," Grant remembered. "And that's when I knew! What other life could there be but that of an actor?"

Grant ran away from home and joined the Bob Pender Troupe of comedians and acrobats. He was soon forced to return home, when it was discovered that he had lied about his age and about having his father's permission to work. At thirteen Grant was a year too young to obtain a work permit to work legally. Undeterred, he waited until he turned fourteen and then got expelled from school so that his father might let him rejoin the group.

Grant learned comedy, gymnastics, and pantomime from Pender's group. His later skill at physical comedy and timing owed much to this early training. His travels with the troupe led him to New York, where he decided to stay and seek success. Using his vaudeville skills he worked Coney Island as a stilt-walker and eventually won roles in light musicals and plays. In 1932 Grant took the advice of a friend and went to Hollywood for a screen test. Paramount offered him a contract but insisted he change his name from Archie Leach. So the more glamorous Cary Grant was chosen—and a great film career began.

### ***Trademark sophistication***

Even in his earliest film roles, Grant demonstrated the elegant sophistication that is the very opposite of his working-class background. His credentials as a traditional leading man were established with his appearance opposite Marlene Dietrich in *Blond Venus*.

The perfect format for displaying Grant's verbal and physical agility was in the screwball comedies of the 1930s. In *The Awful Truth*, *His Girl Friday*, *Holiday* and *Bringing Up Baby*, Grant's deft comic touch is preva-

lent. His Oscar-nominated performances in *Penny Serenade* and *None But the Lonely Heart* show that Grant was a capable dramatic actor as well. Throughout his career Grant continued to successfully play the charming leading man, even as late as 1964, with the film *Charade*.

### ***Drama with Hitchcock***

Although Grant's comedies represent the majority of his best-remembered roles, his work with the director Alfred Hitchcock in several classic films offers a departure from his usual image. Hitchcock deliberately played against Grant's familiar persona by introducing psychological twists that are in startling contrast to the actor's smooth surface elegance.

### ***Troubled marriages***

Although Grant achieved tremendous success as an actor, his first four marriages ended in divorce. Grant speculated that this poor record was tied to the disappearance of his mother. His fifth wife, Barbara Harris, was at his side when he died of a massive stroke in 1986.

Today Grant's name remains a symbol of the stylish sophistication that was his trademark, and repeated viewings of his films reveal an actor whose ability to delight an audience is timeless.

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## GRAHAM GREENE

**Born:** October 2, 1904

**Berkhamsted, Hertfordshire, England**

**Died:** April 3, 1991

**Vevey, Switzerland**

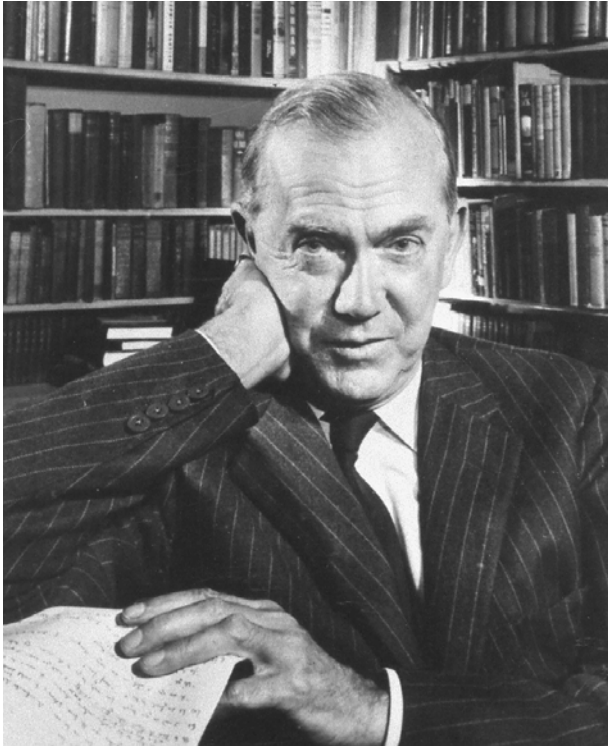
*English author, novelist, and dramatist*

The works of the English writer Graham Greene explore issues of right and wrong in modern society, and often feature exotic settings in different parts of the world.

### ***Childhood***

Graham Greene was born on October 2, 1904, in Berkhamsted, Hertfordshire, in England. He was one of six children born to Charles Henry Greene, headmaster of Berkhamsted School, and Marion R. Greene, whose first cousin was the famed writer Robert Louis Stevenson (1850–1894). He did not enjoy his childhood, and often skipped classes in order to avoid the constant bullying by his fellow classmates. At one point Greene even ran away from home.

When Greene began suffering from mental and emotional problems, his parents sent



Graham Greene.

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him to London for psychotherapy (the treatment of a mentally or emotionally disturbed person through verbal communication) by a student of the famous Sigmund Freud (1856–1939). While he was living there, Greene developed his love for literature and began to write poetry. Writers Ezra Pound (1885–1972) and Gertrude Stein (1874–1946) became life-long mentors (teachers) to him before he returned to high school.

After graduating in 1922, Greene went on to Oxford University's Balliol College. There, Greene amused himself with travel as well as spending six weeks as a member of the Communist Party, a political party that

supports communism, a system of government in which the goods and services of a country are owned and distributed by the government. Though he quickly abandoned his Communist beliefs, Greene later wrote sympathetic profiles of Communist leaders Fidel Castro (1926–) and Ho Chi Minh (1890–1969). Despite all these efforts to distract himself from his studies, he graduated from Oxford in 1925 with a second-class pass in history, and a poorly received volume of poetry with the title *Babbling April*.

### Writing career

In 1926 he began his professional writing career as an unpaid apprentice (working in order to learn a trade) for the *Nottingham Journal*, moving on later to the *London Times*. The experience was a positive one for him, and he held his position as an assistant editor until the publication of his first novel, *The Man Within* (1929). Here he began to develop the characteristic themes he later pursued so effectively: betrayal, pursuit, and death.

His next works, *Name of Action* (1931) and *Rumour at Nightfall* (1931), were not well received by critics, but Greene regained their respect with the first book he classed as an entertainment piece. Called *Stamboul Train* in England, it was published in 1932 in the United States as *Orient Express*. The story revolves around a group of travellers on a train, the *Orient Express*, a mysterious setting that allowed the author to develop his strange characters with drama and suspense.

Twelve years after Greene converted from Anglicanism to Roman Catholicism, he published *Brighton Rock* (1938), a novel with a highly dramatic and suspenseful plot full of sexual and violent imagery that explored the

interplay between abnormal behavior and morality, the quality of good conduct. *The Confidential Agent* was published in 1939, as was the work *The Lawless Roads*, a journal of Greene's travels in Mexico in 1938. Here he had seen widespread persecution (poor treatment) of Catholic priests, which he documented in his journal along with a description of a drunken priest's execution (public killing). The incident made such an impression upon him that this victim became the hero of *The Power and the Glory*, the novel Greene considers to be his best.

### Later life

During the years of World War II (1939–45: when Germany, Italy, and Japan fought against France, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union, and the United States [from 1941 until the end of the war]) Greene slipped out of England and went to West Africa as a secret intelligence (gathering secret information) officer for the British government. The result, a novel called *The Heart of the Matter*, appeared in 1948, and was well received by American readers.

Steadily, Greene produced a series of works that received both praise and criticism. He was considered for the Nobel Prize for Literature but never won the award. Still, many other honors were given to him, including the Companion of Honor award by Queen Elizabeth in 1966, and the Order of Merit, a much higher honor, in 1986.

In 1990 Greene was stricken with an unspecified blood disease, which weakened him so much that he moved from his home in Antibes, the South of France, to Vevey, Switzerland, to be closer to his daughter. He lingered until the beginning of spring, then

died on April 3, 1991, in La Povidence Hospital in Vevey, Switzerland.

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## WAYNE GRETZKY

**Born:** January 26, 1961

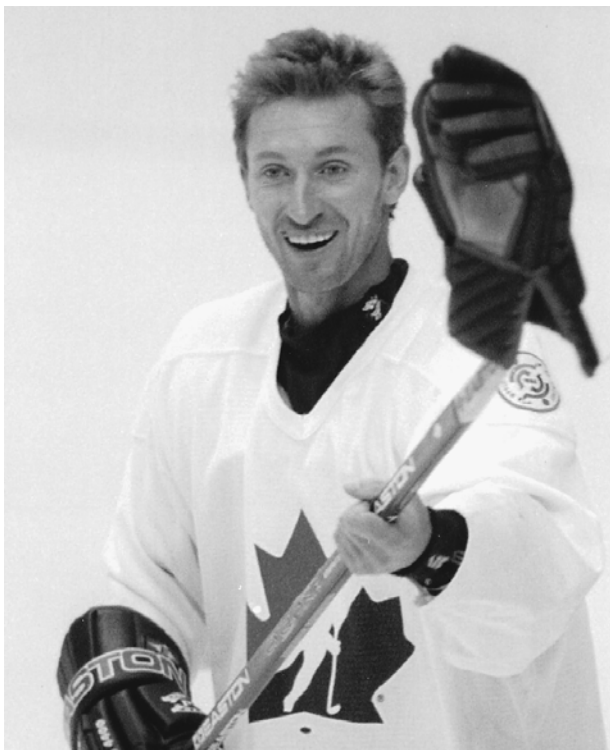
**Brantford, Ontario, Canada**

*Canadian hockey player*

**W**ayne Gretzky, known by hockey fans simply as “The Great One,” became the first player to win the Hart Trophy for eight years in a row and beat hockey legend Gordie Howe’s (1928–) all-time point record of 1,850.

### Showed early talent

Wayne Gretzky was born on January 26, 1961, in Brantford, Ontario, Canada, of Russian and Polish descent. He was the first of five children born to Walter and Phyllis Gretzky. His father had hoped himself to become a hockey player but was discouraged because of his size. Gretzky received his first pair of skates when he was three years old



Wayne Gretzky.

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

and displayed an early interest in skating. He learned to skate on the Ninth River near his grandfather's farm in Canning, Ontario, Canada, and at public rinks on weekends. But it was the rink his father built for him behind the little house on Varadi Avenue in Brantford that became known as the birthplace of his skating skills.

Gretzky was only six years old when he saw his first year in organized hockey. He scored one goal, the lowest yearly total of his career. Already Gretzky had mastered a unique skating stride. His dad's advice to "skate to where the puck's going to be" helped him score 196 goals in seventy-six

games at the age of nine. Gretzky's father pushed his son to succeed and told him that the years of hard work would pay off when he became a successful hockey player.

As a sixteen-year-old in the Junior "A" league, Gretzky continued his high scoring and packed the arenas with fans eager to witness his skills. He wore number 99, because number 9 was still being worn by his idol, Gordie Howe. His slight build led one junior coach to suggest he pick an offensive position, where he could avoid body contact. This was the beginning of Gretzky's trademark spot: behind the opponent's net.

In 1975 Gretzky moved to Toronto to play for the Young Nats, where he won the league's rookie of the year award. Two years later the Sault Ste. Marie Greyhounds drafted him, and he again won rookie of the year honors. Gretzky had gone to school in Brantford and continued high school classes in Sault Ste. Marie but left before graduating.

### *Turning pro*

In 1978 Gretzky turned pro with the Indianapolis Racers of the World Hockey Association (WHA). Less than two months later the Edmonton Oilers of the same league purchased his contract, signing Gretzky to a twenty-one-year contract. In the 1979–80 season the Edmonton Oilers were admitted to the National Hockey League (NHL). In his first year in the NHL Gretzky scored fifty-one goals, eight more than he had scored in the WHA, and he made the second All-Star team. He won his first Hart Trophy for most valuable player, and he won the Lady Byng Trophy for his sportsmanship and skating ability. Taking the public by storm, Gretzky's polite charm was the perfect foil to the traditional

rough-edged hockey player. He went on to become the first player to win the Hart Trophy for eight years in a row, from the 1979–80 season through the 1986–87 season.

Despite Gretzky's talents, the struggling Oilers remained at the bottom of the league. In his second year he led the league in assists and points, made the first All-Star team, and won his second most valuable player trophy award, but the Oilers lost in the quarter-finals to the New York Islanders. During the 1981–82 season he continued to break records, including some of his own. He scored fifty goals in thirty-eight games, breaking Maurice Richard's (1921–2000) record. And on February 24, 1982, he broke Phil Esposito's (1942–) single season scoring record. But the Oilers had not yet made it past the first round of the playoffs. In the 1983–84 season, however, the Oilers won their first Stanley Cup. The two subsequent seasons ended with the Oilers taking the Stanley. In the summer of 1988 Gretzky was traded to the Los Angeles Kings. He quickly turned that weak team into one of the best.

### ***Broke Howe's record***

Gretzky, a left-handed shooting center, developed a style that was as distinctive as it was exciting to watch. Listed in the program as 6 feet and 170 pounds, he always stayed away from fights, preferring to drift and glide around the ice. Some fans believed that he viewed the rink as a chessboard and that he had the ability to sense where the puck was going to end up, thus skating to that position. Others believed that his greatest asset was his ability to move sideways across the ice at full speed. But it was his assists that made him especially valuable to his team. In becoming the leading scorer in

NHL history he set a new record for assists (more than thirteen hundred) in just twelve seasons. In 1989 he passed his idol Gordie Howe's all-time point record of 1,850.

Such achievement brought Gretzky numerous commercial endorsements for companies as different from one another as General Mills and Nike. Consumers found his personality appealing, and he only endorsed products he used. Advertising Age Magazine called him "an ideal athlete to endorse products."

### ***Traded to the Blues***

Gretzky continued breaking records and winning awards in the 1990s. Late in the 1993–94 season he broke another Howe record of 801 career goals, accomplishing this in 650 fewer games than Howe played. Gretzky began to get frustrated with the unsuccessful attempts of the Kings, and he wanted to be traded. Gretzky was traded to the St. Louis Blues in the 1995–96 season.

### ***New York Ranger***

Gretzky's career with the Blues was brief. He had not yet officially signed with the team when they lost the first two games in the play-off series. The coach and general manager of the Blues blamed Gretzky for the losses, but Gretzky had already decided not to sign with St. Louis. Instead, he signed with the New York Rangers for the 1996–97 season.

Gretzky retired from hockey in New York in April 1999. He left the game after twenty years as a professional in the sport, with sixty-one NHL records held or shared. His number 99 jersey was permanently retired at ceremonies during Gretzky's final game with the

Rangers. Gretzky was inducted into the Hockey Hall of Fame in November 1999.

The crowning achievement in Gretzky's hockey career came at the Winter Olympics of 2002 as executive director of Canada's hockey team. A Canadian ice worker embedded a lucky "loony," Canada's one-dollar coin, in the hockey arena's ice. Perhaps that's why the Canadian team won over the United States, 5 to 2. It was the most watched game in the history of hockey, with thirty-eight million homes tuned in. The final goal was scored with the sound of "O Canada," Canada's national anthem, in the background. Currently Gretzky is part owner of the Phoenix Coyotes. He lives with his wife and four children in the United States.

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## BROTHERS GRIMM

### JAKOB GRIMM

**Born:** January 4, 1785  
**Hanau, Germany**

**Died:** September 20, 1863

**Berlin, Germany**

*German scholar and author*

## WILHELM GRIMM

**Born:** February 24, 1786

**Hanau, Germany**

**Died:** December 16, 1859

**Berlin, Germany**

*German scholar and author*

The brothers Jakob and Wilhelm Grimm were German scholars known for their fairy tales and for their work in the study of different languages, which included the creation of "Grimm's law."

#### ***Together from the beginning***

Jakob Karl Grimm was born on January 4, 1785, in Hanau, Germany. His brother, Wilhelm Karl Grimm, was born on February 24 of the following year. They were the oldest surviving sons of Philipp Grimm, a lawyer who served as Hanau's town clerk. As small children they spent most of their time together; aside from a brief period of living apart, they were to remain together for the rest of their lives. Their even-tempered personalities made it easy for them to work together on projects. The main difference in their personalities seems to have been that Jakob, the healthier of the two, had more taste for research work, and it was he who worked out most of their theories of language and grammar. Wilhelm was physically weaker but was a somewhat warmer person

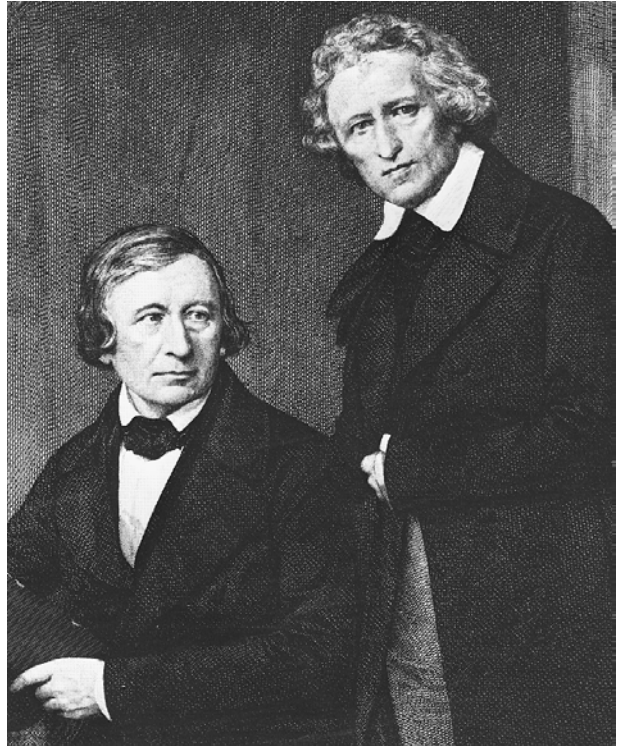
and more interested in music and literature. He was responsible for the pleasant style of their collection of fairy tales.

The brothers first attended school in Kassel, Germany, and then they began legal studies at the University of Marburg. While there, however, the inspiration of a professor named Friedrich von Savigny awakened in them an interest in past cultures. In 1808 Jakob was named court librarian to the King of Westphalia in Wilhelmshöhe, Germany. In 1816 he became librarian in Kassel, where Wilhelm had been employed since 1814. They were to remain there until 1830, when they obtained positions at the University of Göttingen.

### ***“Grimm’s Fairy Tales”***

The romantic movement in Germany (a movement in the arts that favored a return to nature and a greater focus on national culture, especially folk tales) awakened the Germans’ interest in the past of their own country. Although some work in the rediscovery and editing of medieval (from the Middle Ages, 500–1500) German literature had already been started in the eighteenth century, it was the poets and theorists of the next century who first focused national attention on the origins of German culture and literature. While most of the poets viewed medieval literature mainly as an inspiration for new writing, others turned their attention to the investigation of the past. The Grimm brothers were the most important of these early language and folklore romantic historians.

For some years the brothers had been in contact with the romantic poets Clemens Brentano (1778–1842) and Achim von Arnim (1781–1831), who were preparing a



*The Brothers Grimm.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

collection of German folk songs. Following their own interests in folklore and legends, the brothers brought out their first collection of tales, *Kinder-und Hausmärchen* (Tales of Children and the Home), in 1812. These tales were collected by recording stories told by peasants and villagers. Wilhelm put them into written form and gave them a pleasant, childlike style. The brothers added many scholarly footnotes on the tales’ sources and different versions.

In addition, the Grimms worked on editing existing pieces of other folklore and early literature. Between 1816 and 1818 they published two volumes of *Deutsche Sagen* (Ger-



man Legends). At about the same time they published a volume of studies in the history of early literature, *Altdeutsche Wälder* (Old German Forests).

### **Language research**

In later years their interest in older literature led the Grimm brothers to a study of older languages and their relationship to modern German. Jakob especially began to specialize in the history and structure of the German language. The first edition of his *Deutsche Grammatik* (German Grammar) was published in 1819.

The brothers, especially Jakob, were also working to document the relationship between similar words of related languages, such as the English *apple* and the German *Apfel*. Their creation of the rules for such relationships became known as "Grimm's law." It was later expanded to account for all word relationships in the Indo-European group of languages. The Grimm brothers were not the first to take note of such similarities, but they can be credited with gathering the bulk of linguistic (related to language) data and working out the details of the rules.

### **Later years**

In 1830 the brothers moved to the University of Göttingen, where Jakob was named professor and head librarian and Wilhelm was appointed assistant librarian. As professor, Jakob held lectures on linguistics and cultural history. Wilhelm also attained the rank of professor in 1835. Both were dismissed in 1835 for political reasons. (They had joined in signing a protest against the King's decision to abolish the Hanover constitution.) They first moved back to Kassel but later obtained pro-

fessorships at Berlin, Germany, where they were to remain until their deaths.

The Grimm brothers' last years were spent in preparing a complete dictionary of the German language, tracing the origin of every word. The first volume, published in 1854, has 1,824 pages but gets only as far as the word *Biermolke*. Four pages are devoted to the letter A alone, which is termed "the most noble and primeval [ancient] of all sounds." The Grimms' dictionary was carried on by generations of scholars after the brothers' deaths, and it was finally finished in 1960. Its completed form consists of sixteen large volumes.

Wilhelm died in Berlin on December 16, 1859. Jakob continued to work on the dictionary and related projects until his death in Berlin on September 20, 1863.

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**WOODY  
GUTHRIE**

**Born:** July 14, 1912

**Okemah, Oklahoma**

**Died:** October 3, 1967

**New York, New York**

*American musician, songwriter, and singer*

Writer and performer of folk songs, Woody Guthrie composed “This Land Is Your Land,” a song many call an unofficial national anthem. His music, which celebrates the good in people, includes messages of unity and brotherly love and remains the anthem of the poor and broken.

### *Early life*

Woodrow Wilson Guthrie was born on July 14, 1912, in Okemah, Oklahoma, the third of Charles and Nora Guthrie’s five children. Guthrie’s grandmother was one of the first schoolteachers in the county. His father was a professional guitarist and prizefighter who regularly encouraged physical fitness and wrestling. Guthrie’s mother taught social awareness and folk music. His father’s message was to never be bullied, while his mother’s message was to try to see the world from the other person’s perspective. Despite a shortened high school education and no formal musical training, Guthrie’s eager reading and focus on music supported him throughout his life. All of the Guthrie children were brought up on blues and Native American songs, favored by their father, and folk songs, favored by their mother.

Guthrie led one of the most tragic lives of any famous American. A series of family tragedies overlapped with the nation’s slide into the Great Depression (a time of severe economic hardship in the 1930s). Two homes burned to the ground and another was destroyed. Guthrie’s mother became ill with Huntington’s chorea (a gradual, fatal disease of the nervous system), which she passed on to Guthrie. His father lost all of his businesses as the country struggled with the Stock Mar-

ket Crash (October 29, 1929; a day when investors sold over sixteen million shares of stocks because they feared the possible effects of a recently signed tax bill—many people lost everything, suicides were common, banks failed, and stores closed). Virtually orphaned at the age of fourteen, with his family falling apart, Guthrie developed a roaming way of life that he never entirely abandoned.

### *Traveling man*

In the course of Guthrie’s travels he learned to perform folk songs, first those of others but later his own. He survived with odd jobs in settings as varied as hobo camps and barbershops. With a harmonica and the music of his parents he traveled the southwest, witnessing the devastation of both the Great Depression and the Dust Bowl (a time during the 1930s when thousands of people left their farms in a region of the Great Plains after overuse of land and a long period without rain caused massive dust storms and made farming in the area impossible).

In Texas Woody was given his first and only guitar. With a few chords under his belt he began writing songs, some to old tunes and some to new ones. In 1937 he got a hold of, through a cousin, the first of many radio jobs, singing and playing on a Los Angeles station. He also acquired permanent ties to the Communist Party (a political party that promotes a society in which all goods and services are divided equally between the people). In 1940 he arrived in New York City and was discovered by Alan Lomax, assistant director of the Archive of Folk Songs of the Library of Congress. Lomax recorded many of Guthrie’s songs for the library. He also promoted Guthrie’s career in other ways, such as



Woody Guthrie.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

by getting Victor Records to produce a two album, twelve record set of Guthrie's "Dust Bowl Ballads." (A ballad is a song that tells a story.) Though they did not sell, the ballads were to have a lasting influence.

### ***Political connections***

A witness to Hoovervilles (clusters of homeless people living in cardboard box villages named after President Herbert Hoover [1874–1964] who had promised better times) and migrant camps (temporary housing for families who get paid to harvest crops and move frequently to follow the harvest), Woody was drawn to people with a social

conscience (an awareness of less fortunate members of society). Actor Will Geer teamed up with him and toured both labor camps and farm worker strikes.

At the brink of America's entry into World War II (1939–45; a war in which the Allies—Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, the United States [from 1941], and others—fought against the German-led Axis forces), Guthrie joined the Almanac Singers, a left-wing folk music group that included Pete Seeger (1919–), who eventually became a well-known member along with Guthrie. On February 14, 1942, the Almanacs gained their greatest exposure when they performed on a program called "This Is War," which was aired by four major networks. Except, newspaper stories about the group's Communist affiliations prevented the Almanacs from achieving commercial success. They dissolved within a year. Most of the members of the Almanacs were very anti-Nazi (German political party in rule during World War II that believed in the superiority of the white Aryan [German] race), and they enrolled in the U.S. military.

Guthrie supported the war too. "This Machine Kills Fascists" (people who support a centralized government ruled by a dictator with absolute power) was inscribed on his guitar. But he hoped to accomplish his goal at a distance. He tried in vain to avoid the draft (government selection for military service). To stay out of the U.S. military he served in the merchant marine, but it was a dangerous strategy—two of the three ships he served on were lost. In addition, he was drafted into service anyway. Upon his discharge from the army in 1946 he joined People's Songs, another radical (extreme) musical associa-

tion. It also failed because of the Communist connection, which was even more offensive during the Cold War (1945–89; a struggle for world power between the United States and the Soviet Union).

Pete Seeger organized a folk-singing group called The Weavers in 1948, and for several years it produced one hit record after another. Though Guthrie was not a Weaver, their success helped his music. His “So Long, It’s Been Good to Know You” became one of their most popular numbers. But The Weavers were soon blacklisted (labeled as Communists and therefore not given any financial or professional support), and the fashion for popularized folk music disappeared with them.

By this time Guthrie’s health was visibly failing. In 1952 he was diagnosed with Huntington’s chorea. He died of the disease on October 3, 1967, in New York City.

### **Legendary status**

Though a poor musician and an inconsistent performer, Guthrie wrote an estimated one thousand songs, which have earned him a secure place in musical history. When he was discovered, folk music had few fans except radicals (extremists) and a handful of admirers and musicologists (music researchers). Guthrie and The Weavers were responsible for folk music’s brief popularity in the late 1940s and early 1950s, and they influenced the greater following it developed ten years later. Though

folk music became less popular, it continued to exist, and Guthrie’s legacy was very much a part of it. The year 2001 brought a revival of folk music mania after the release of *O Brother, Where Art Thou?*, a movie set in the 1930s that was rich with folk and hill music.

Guthrie’s legendary influence on folk music is hard to assess. He was famous among leftists (those wishing for change and reform) in the 1940s, and by the 1960s, though hospitalized and unable to speak, he had become a heroic figure. Bob Dylan (1941–), before he himself became famous as the leading composer of political songs, made a pilgrimage (a journey to show respect) to Guthrie’s bedside. Guthrie’s reputation was based on his authentic folk origins and hobo inclinations, his remarkable talents as a writer and composer, and a romantic appreciation of his politics.

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## ALEX HALEY

**Born:** August 11, 1921

**Ithaca, New York**

**Died:** February 10, 1992

**Seattle, Washington**

*African American author*

Alex Haley is the celebrated author of *Roots: The Saga of an American Family* (1976). By April 1977 almost two million hardcover copies of the book had been sold and 130 million people had seen all or part of the eight-episode television series. *Roots* is considered by many

critics a classic in African American literature and culture.

### *Early years*

Alex Haley was born in Ithaca, New York, and raised in the small town of Henning, Tennessee. His father managed the family lumber business while his mother was a schoolteacher. Growing up, Haley became interested in his ancestry while listening to colorful stories told by his family. These stories, which traced seven generations, would become the source and inspiration for Haley's later work.

School records indicate that Haley was not an exceptional student, and at the age of



Alex Haley.

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eighteen he joined the U.S. Coast Guard and began a twenty-year career in the service. He practiced his writing, at first only to cure boredom on the ship, and soon found himself writing love letters for his shipmates to send home to their wives and girlfriends. He wrote serious pieces as well and submitted them to various magazines.

### ***A literary career***

Upon retiring from the Coast Guard, Haley decided to become a full-time writer and journalist. His first book, *The Autobiography of Malcolm X* (1965), which he cowrote with Malcolm X (1925–1965), was well-

received by both critics and the public. The work sold more than five million copies and launched Haley's writing career.

Two weeks after the book was completed, Haley began work on his next project, *Roots*. The tale follows the life of Kunta Kinte, a proud African who was kidnapped from his village in West Africa. After surviving the middle passage (the brutal shipment of Africans to be sold in the Americas), he was made a slave on a plantation in the United States. Haley visited archives, libraries, and research repositories on three continents to make the book as authentic (real) as possible. He even reenacted Kunta's experience during the middle passage by spending a night in the hold of a ship (the storage room below deck) stripped to his underwear.

### ***The impact of Roots***

Haley himself described *Roots* as a "faction," a mixture of fact and fiction. Most critics agreed and evaluated *Roots* as a blend of history and entertainment. However, some voiced concerns—especially at the time of the television series—that racial tension in America would be aggravated by *Roots*.

Many activists viewed *Roots* to be an important part of the civil rights movement, where African Americans and other minorities fought for equality. Vernon E. Jordan (1935–), the executive director of the National Urban League, called the television series "the single most spectacular educational experience in race relations in America." Speaking of the appeal of *Roots* among blacks, Haley added: "The blacks who are buying books are not buying them to go out and fight someone, but because they want to know who they are. . . . [The] book has touched a strong, subliminal chord."

Barely two years after the book was published, *Roots* had already won 271 awards, and its television adaptation had been nominated for a record-breaking thirty-seven Emmys, the top awards for television programming. Over eight million copies of the book were in print, and the text was translated into twenty-six languages.

### **Backlash**

In addition to fame and fortune, *Roots* also brought Haley controversy. In 1977 two published authors, Margaret Walker and Harold Courlander, accused Haley of plagiarizing (to steal and use as one's own) their work. Charges brought by Walker were later dropped, but Haley admitted that he unknowingly lifted three paragraphs from Courlander's *The African* (1968). A settlement was reached whereby Haley paid Courlander \$500,000.

Regardless of the controversies, the popularity of *Roots* is very clear. It is still widely read in schools, and many college and university history and literature programs consider it an essential part of their assigned reading.

Stardom took its toll on Haley, though. *The New Times* reported that on a trip to his ancestral village in Africa, Haley complained: "You'll find that people who celebrate you will kill you. They forget you are blood and flesh and bone. I have had days and weeks and months of schedules where everything from my breakfast to my last waking moment was planned for me."

### **Beyond Roots**

*Roots* was so successful that the American Broadcasting Company (ABC) produced

a sequel, *Roots: The Next Generations*, a \$16.6-million production that ran for fourteen hours. The story line of *Roots II*, as it was called, begins in 1882, twelve years after the end of the *Roots I*, and it concludes in 1967.

In 1985 Haley was working on a novel set in the Appalachian culture that he had researched extensively. The novel was centered around the relationships among a mountain father, son, and grandson. Because this book was not about blacks but primarily about whites, Haley said of the project, "I think one of the most fascinating things you can do after you learn about your own people is to study something about the history and culture of other people."

Haley also researched his paternal heritage (his father's ancestry), which became the book *Queen*. But before he could finish the book, Haley died on February 10, 1992. (David Stevens would complete the work on *Queen*.) In 1993 *Queen* became a three-episode miniseries which aired on the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS). Accusations surfaced about the historical accuracy of *Queen*, and critics questioned whether a romance had actually existed between Queen and her slave-owning master. According to Melinda Henneberger in the *The New York Times*, the tapes left by Haley did not mention a romance between his paternal great-grandparents. Producer Mark Wolper indicated "Haley had become convinced by his later inquiries . . . that his great-grandparents had actually been in love."

Haley also planned to write a book detailing the life of millionaire Madame C. J. Walker (1867–1919) and her daughter A'Lelia. Haley had signed a three-book contract with Ballantine for its new multicultural

publishing program, for which his first title was to be a history of his hometown—Henning. Those who knew Haley well say his research on Henning predated the writing of *Roots*. Haley was buried on the grounds of his Henning homestead.

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## ALEXANDER HAMILTON

**Born:** January 11, 1755

Nevis, British West Indies

**Died:** July 12, 1804

Weehawken, New Jersey

*American statesman*

**T**he first U.S. secretary of the treasury, Alexander Hamilton was one of the leaders of the nation's first political party, the Federalists (a group who supported a strong central government). Hamilton remains a well-known figure in U.S. history. He is known not only for the great contributions that he made to the early United States but also for his famous duel with Aaron Burr (1756–1836) in 1804, which resulted in his death.

### ***Birth and early life***

Alexander Hamilton's birth date is disputed, but it is often listed as January 11,

1755. He was born on the island of Nevis, in the British West Indies, the illegitimate son (his parents were not married to each other) of James Hamilton, a Scotsman, and Rachel Fawcett Lavien, the daughter of a French physician.

Hamilton's education was brief. He began working between the ages of eleven and thirteen for a trading company in St. Croix, an island in the U.S. Virgin Islands. In 1772 he left to attend school in the American colonies. After a few months at an academy in New Jersey, he enrolled in King's College in New York City. Intelligent enough to master most subjects without formal instruction and eager to win success and fame early in life, he left college in 1776 without graduating.

### ***American Revolution***

The outbreak of the American Revolution (1775–83), when the thirteen British colonies in North America fought for their freedom, offered Hamilton the opportunity he craved. In 1777 he became a lieutenant colonel (an army officer who is above a colonel) in the Continental Army (the national army fighting for American independence) and assistant to commanding general George Washington (1732–1799). Hamilton became one of Washington's most trusted advisers. Although he played no role in major military decisions, Hamilton's position was one of great responsibility. He drafted many of Washington's important letters, he was sent on important military missions, and he wrote several reports on the reorganization and reform of the army. In December 1780 he married Elizabeth, the daughter of Philip Schuyler (1733–1804), a member of one of New York's most distin-



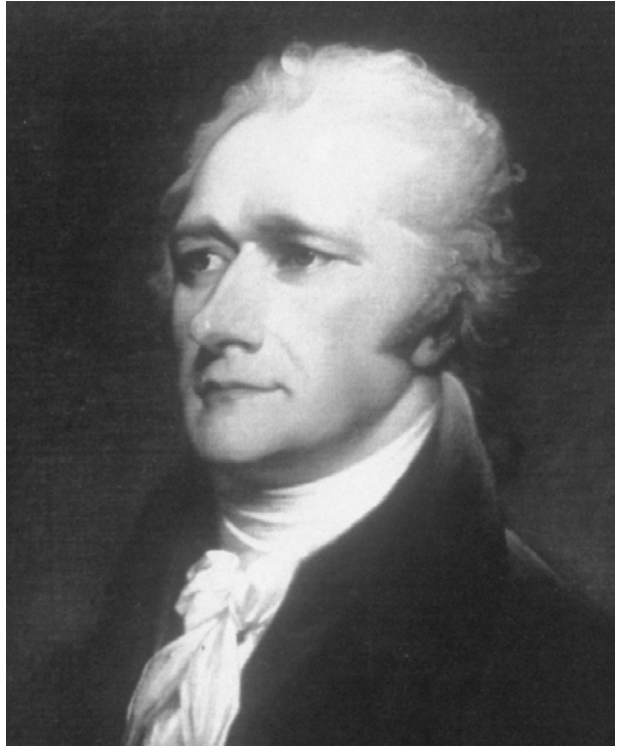
guished families. Hamilton eventually returned to New York. In 1782 he became a lawyer following a short period of apprenticeship (studying and learning a job from someone already in that position).

Hamilton's ideas on government and society had changed during the Revolution. Having been born in a foreign country gave him a different viewpoint from most people. Working for Washington had allowed him to observe how the weakness of Congress and how state and local jealousies were hurting the war effort. From this point on Hamilton believed in, and tried to work to bring about, a strong central government.

### ***Confederation era***

Attending the Continental Congress as a representative from New York from November 1782 through July 1783, Hamilton tried to make sure that the new government would have the powers it needed to deal with the problems it faced after it won independence from Britain. As one of the twelve delegates to the Annapolis Convention of 1786, he drafted its resolution (final decision or opinion) calling for a constitutional convention to make sure that interests of the union as a whole were placed over individual state and local concerns.

Hamilton was one of the representatives from New York to the Constitutional Convention, which was held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, from May to September 1787. In October 1787 he wrote a series of essays on behalf of the planned Constitution. First published in New York City newspapers as having been written by "Publius" and collectively titled *The Federalist*, these essays were designed to persuade the people of New York



*Alexander Hamilton.*

*Courtesy of the Smithsonian Institution.*

to ratify, or approve, the Constitution. Although others wrote for *The Federalist*, Hamilton wrote fifty-one of the eighty-five essays. They contain some of America's most original and important writing on politics and help explain some of the wording of the Constitution. At the New York convention in 1788, as a result of Hamilton's efforts, the Constitution was ratified.

### ***Secretary of the treasury***

In September 1789, some six months after the new government was established, Hamilton was named the nation's first secretary of the treasury. This was the most impor-

tant of the executive departments because the new government's most urgent problem was to find ways to pay the national debt—domestic and foreign—that had grown during the Revolution. Hamilton wrote many reports on the American economy, and many of his suggestions became law. Hamilton's ideas were not exactly original (they were similar to British policies), but they were sensible and took into account the needs of the new country.

Hamilton's importance during this period was not confined to his work as treasury secretary. As the “prime minister” of Washington's administration, he was consulted on a wide range of problems, foreign and domestic. In addition, he is considered the leader of the country's first political party. Hamilton himself disliked the idea of political parties. However, when the debate over his policies revealed disagreement among the members of Congress, Hamilton assumed leadership of the pro-administration group, known as the Federalists.

### ***Well-known lawyer and army general***

Hamilton retired from office in January 1795. He returned to his law practice to make money to support his growing family and soon became the most distinguished lawyer in New York City. His interest in public affairs continued, however, and he served as President Washington's adviser. He helped Washington write his famous “Farewell Address” (1796), in which Washington turned down a third term as president. Hamilton remained active in politics as well, speaking out in favor of candidates he liked and criticizing those he opposed.

While many held Hamilton in high regard, others neither liked nor trusted him.

During the presidency of John Adams (1735–1826), however, Hamilton continued to have considerable national influence; members of Adams's cabinet often sought and followed his advice. In 1798 they cooperated with George Washington to secure Hamilton's appointment—over Adams's strong opposition—as inspector general and second in command of the U.S. Army, which was preparing for a possible war against France. Since Washington chose not to assume active command, organizing and recruiting these troops fell to Hamilton. His military career came to an abrupt end in 1800 after President Adams sent a peace mission to France that achieved a settlement of the major issues.

### ***Retirement and the fatal duel***

Although his interest in national policies and politics was still strong, Hamilton's role in national affairs after 1801 became smaller. He continued to publish his opinions on public affairs in the *New York Evening Post*. In 1804 he took a stand against a rumored plot by New England and New York Federalists to break up the Union by forming a northern confederacy (a separate union). Hamilton believed that Vice President Aaron Burr (1756–1836), whom he referred to as “the most unfit and dangerous man of the community,” was involved with this plan. Hamilton also actively stood against Burr's bid for the New York governorship. After Burr lost the race, he angrily challenged Hamilton to a duel. Hamilton believed that his “ability to be in [the] future useful” demanded that he meet the challenge.

After putting his personal affairs in order, Alexander Hamilton met Burr at dawn on July 11, 1804, on the New Jersey side of the Hud-

son River. The two men exchanged gunshots, and Hamilton fell, mortally wounded. Many believe that he missed Burr on purpose, leaving himself an open target for Burr's bullet. Hamilton was carried back to New York City, where he died the next afternoon.

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include *Showboat*, *South Pacific*, *The King and I*, and *The Sound of Music*.

### Theatrical roots

Oscar Greeley Clendenning Hammerstein II was born into a great theatrical family on July 12, 1895, in New York City. He was named after both famous grandfathers, Horace Greeley (1811–1872; famous anti-slavery newspaper publisher), and Oscar I, an opera promoter, as well as after the minister who wed his parents. His father, William, was the manager of *Victoria*, one of the most famous vaudeville theaters (involving a variety of acts) of its day. His uncle, Arthur, was a well-known producer. All were famous in their own right, but all of their success would be overshadowed by this new family member, Oscar II.

Oscar, or “Ockie” (his lifelong nickname), dabbled in theatrical activities as a youth, debuting in a Christmas pageant at his public school. At age nine he began his piano lessons. A happy childhood was marred by the death of his mother when he was just fifteen. When it came time for a career choice, Oscar's father pushed him away from the theater and toward law, through courses at Columbia University. His father's death in 1914 left him dependent on the more theatrically inclined family members. It was at Columbia that Oscar's career in theater began, when, at age nineteen, he joined the Columbia University Players as a performer in the 1915 Varsity review *On Your Way*. He participated heavily in the Varsity shows for several years, first as a performer and later as a writer. It was at Columbia that Oscar first met Richard Rodgers, who would later collaborate with him and with Lorenz Hart.

## OSCAR HAMMERSTEIN

**Born:** July 12, 1895

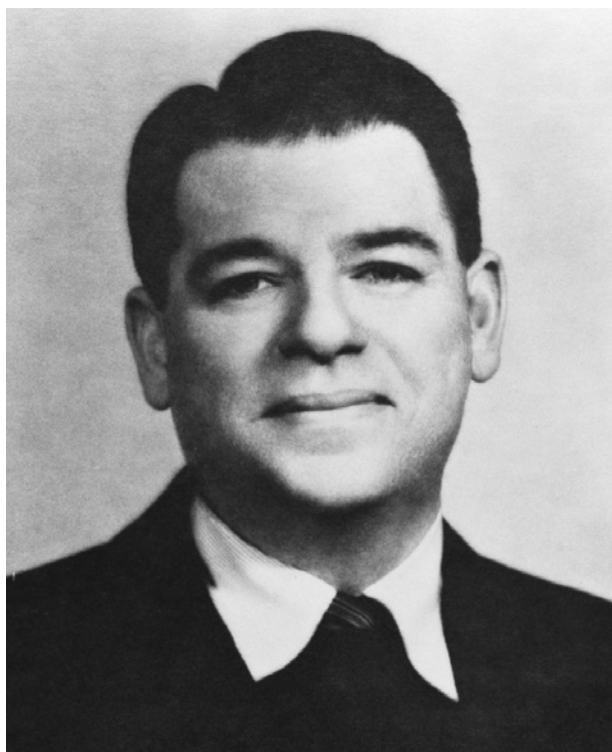
New York, New York

**Died:** August 23, 1960

Doylestown, Pennsylvania

American songwriter

Oscar Hammerstein was perhaps the most influential lyricist and librettist (writer of opera lyrics) of the American theater. It was Hammerstein who reversed the process of musical writing, writing the lyrics first and then the score. Major musicals for which he wrote the lyrics



Oscar Hammerstein.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

### Stage manager to librettist

After his first year of law school, the young Hammerstein convinced his uncle, Arthur, to hire him as an assistant stage manager on one of his upcoming shows. His uncle's one condition was that Oscar "not write one line" during this theater apprenticeship. Hammerstein complied, working his way up from scenery to production stage manager for all of Arthur's shows in 1919. In this position Hammerstein was able to do some writing and rewriting on scripts in development. Eventually he was writing musical comedies of his own. His first success as a librettist came in 1922 with *Wildflower*, written

with Otto Harbach. A more major success in 1924, *Rose Marie*, led to his collaboration with composer Jerome Kern. Kern and Hammerstein had both been concerned with the "integrated musical," a musical in which the book, lyrics, and score all grow from a central idea and all contribute to the story line.

Hammerstein and Kern developed what was later called musical plays. The musical play was distinguished from the libretto or musical comedy in its more natural, less poetic language. Their first example was an adaptation of Edna Ferber's sprawling novel about life on a Mississippi River boat. This became the landmark 1925 musical *Showboat*, with Kern composing the score and Hammerstein writing the book and lyrics. *Showboat* firmly established Hammerstein's success and reputation as a writer and lyricist.

### Partnering with Rodgers

In 1929 Hammerstein divorced his wife of twelve years, Myra Finn, and married Dorothy Blanchard Jacobson. The next decade turned out to be a happy one for Hammerstein personally, but unhappy professionally. He spent much of his time in Hollywood, working on contract to various studios. He discovered that he did not work well under the rigorous time demands of the movie industry, having achieved his greatest success with *Showboat*'s one year writing period. In 1942 he returned to New York with Dorothy and began leisurely work on an adaptation of Bizet's *Carmen*. Hammerstein adapted the lyrics and story to create the Americanized, all-black *Carmen Jones*. The opera received great acclaim.

When he had finished the libretto for *Carmen Jones*, Hammerstein was contacted by

an old Columbia acquaintance, Richard Rodgers, whose partnership with Lorenz Hart had recently dissolved. Rodgers had read Lynn Riggs's *Green Grow the Lilacs* and wanted to collaborate with Hammerstein on a musical adaptation for the Theatre Guild. Hammerstein had also read the play, and the two began work on the musical, tentatively titled *Away We Go*. Rodgers and Hammerstein worked toward the concept of the integrated musical, with Hammerstein writing most of the lyrics before Rodgers wrote the score, the reverse of the normal process. Robert Mamoulian was signed on as director, Agnes deMille as choreographer, and Terry Helburn as producer for the Theatre Guild.

When the musical, retitled *Oklahoma*, opened on Broadway on March 31, 1943, it was an enormous success, both critically and popularly. *Oklahoma* ran for 2,243 performances in its initial Broadway engagement, and in 1944 it received a special Pulitzer Prize. The team of Rodgers and Hammerstein was a success. They produced their own work and promising works by other artists and at one time had five of the highest grossing shows running at the same time on Broadway. They followed up their success with collaborations on *Carousel* (1945), *Allegro* (1947), *South Pacific* (1949), *The King and I* (1951), *Me and Juliet* (1953), *Pipe Dream* (1955), *Flower Drum Song* (1958), and *The Sound of Music* (1960), for which Howard Lindsay and Russell Crouse wrote the book, Rodgers composed the score, and Hammerstein wrote the lyrics. *South Pacific* won the Pulitzer Prize in 1950. *South Pacific*, *The King and I*, and *The Sound of Music* all won Tony awards for best musical. Most of the Rodgers and Hammerstein musicals have been adapted for the screen, with the greatest success going to *Oklahoma* and *The Sound of Music*.

### ***Continued influence***

Hammerstein's talents as a lyricist and librettist are undeniable. Countless productions of his musicals on Broadway, on tour, and in professional, amateur, and academic theaters around the world testify to the remarkable quality of his work. Hammerstein's influence on the next generation of lyricists and librettists was also direct and observable. Most notable was his influence on Stephen Sondheim, lyricist for such shows as *West Side Story*, *Sweeney Todd*, and *Sunday in the Park with George*. Sondheim was a close friend of the Hammerstein family from childhood and attributed his success in theater directly to Hammerstein's influence and guidance.

Oscar Glendenning Hammerstein II died in his home in Doylestown, Pennsylvania, on August 23, 1960, a victim of stomach cancer. He left behind three children, William and Alice by Myra Finn, and James by Dorothy Blanchard Jacobson. On September 1, 1960, at 9 P.M., the lights were extinguished on Broadway in memory of Oscar Hammerstein II, the "man who owned Broadway."

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## JOHN HANCOCK

**Born:** January 23, 1737

**Braintree, Massachusetts**

**Died:** October 8, 1793

**Boston, Massachusetts**

*American statesman, politician, and governor*

John Hancock signed the Declaration of Independence and was a leader of the movement toward revolution in the American colonies. He later served as a president of the Continental Congress, and he was elected governor of Massachusetts for nine terms.

### *Early life*

John Hancock was born in Braintree, Massachusetts, on January 23, 1737. His parents were John Hancock, a Harvard graduate and minister, and Mary Hawke. After the death of his father when Hancock was seven, he was adopted by his uncle, a wealthy Boston merchant. Hancock graduated from Harvard in 1754, served for a time in his uncle's office as a clerk, and went to London in 1760 as the firm's representative. He spent a year there. In 1763 Hancock became a partner in his uncle's thriving business.

When his uncle died in 1764, Hancock inherited the business. He was one of many who was opposed to Great Britain's passing of the Stamp Act in 1765, since the act taxed the

kinds of transactions, or business dealings, his company was involved with. As a result, to avoid having to pay these taxes, Hancock ignored the law and began smuggling (bringing in secretly) goods into the colonies.

Hancock was elected to the Massachusetts General Court in 1766 at the suggestion of other colonists who were against British interference in the colonies. Hancock had attracted attention as something of a hero after one of his smuggling ships, the *Liberty*, was seized by the British. He received more votes than Samuel Adams (1722–1803), one of the most famous American Revolutionary leaders, in the next General Court election. Meanwhile, Hancock was threatened with large fines by Britain for the *Liberty* affair. Though the fines were never collected, Hancock never got his ship back.

### *Growing anti-British sentiment*

Every time the British made a move that affected the American colonies, especially anything involving taxes, Samuel Adams and other anti-British agitators (people who stir up public feeling on political issues) spoke out against it. The Boston Massacre of 1770 (when British soldiers fired into a crowd of people who had been throwing snowballs and sticks at them, killing five) increased colonial anger toward Britain and established a tension that continued to grow. Hancock wavered for a time, but when the strength of public opinion became clear, he made the courageous announcement that he was totally committed to making a stand against the actions of the British government—even if it cost him his life and his fortune.

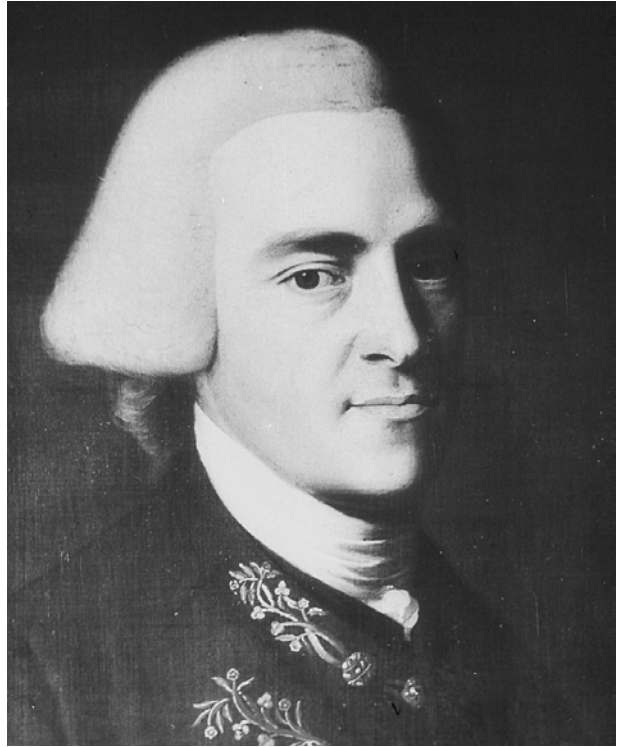
During the Boston Tea Party of 1773, Boston colonists disguised as Native Ameri-

cans dumped three shiploads of British tea into the harbor as a protest against the British government. After the Boston Tea Party, the British passed the Boston Port Bill of 1774. The bill ordered the closing of the port of Boston until the cost of the tea was repaid. Hancock's reputation grew during this time to the point where he became one of the main symbols of anti-British radicalism (extreme actions trying to force change). How much of this was planned by him, and how far he had been pushed by Samuel Adams, is uncertain. What is known is that when British General Thomas Gage finally decided to try to achieve peaceful relations with the colonies, Hancock and Adams were the only two Americans to whom he refused to even consider giving amnesty (a pardon).

### *Continental Congress*

Hancock was elected president of the Continental Congress in May 1775 and married Dorothy Quincy in August of the same year. He hoped to be named to command the army around Boston and was disappointed when George Washington (1732–1799) was selected instead. Hancock voted for, and was the first representative to sign, the Declaration of Independence. Although Hancock resigned as president of the Continental Congress in October 1777, saying that he was in poor health, he stayed on as a member.

Hancock still wanted to prove himself as a military leader. However, when given the opportunity to command an expedition into Rhode Island in 1778, he did nothing to distinguish himself. Hancock was also embarrassed in 1777 when Harvard College, which he had served as treasurer since 1773, accused him of mismanaging university funds



*John Hancock.*

*Courtesy of the National Archives and  
Records Association.*

and demanded repayment. Hancock was forced to pay £16,000 (approximately \$22,000). In 1785 Hancock admitted that he still owed £1,054 (approximately \$1,500) to Harvard. This sum was eventually paid out of his estate after his death.

### *Elected to office*

Like most public figures, Hancock had enemies. His opponents spread the word that he was a shallow man who lacked strong beliefs and was only interested in helping himself. Nevertheless, they could not prevent his election as the first governor of Massa-

chusetts, in 1780. He was reelected several times until retiring in 1785 just before Massachusetts went through a financial crisis. Although he claimed that his retirement was based on illness, Hancock's enemies claimed that he had seen the coming storm, which was caused in part by mistakes he had made in handling the state's money. After Shays's Rebellion (a 1786–87 uprising by farmers and small property owners in Massachusetts who demanded lower taxes, court reforms, and a revision of the state constitution), Hancock was reelected governor.

In 1788, Hancock was elected president of the Massachusetts State Convention to ratify, or approve, the new Constitution. He was approached by members of the Federalist Party (an early political group that supported a strong central government) who wanted a set of amendments added to the document. They supposedly hinted that if Hancock presented the amendments, they would help him to be named president if Washington declined the job. The truth of this story has never been confirmed. In the end, Hancock did offer the amendments, and Massachusetts ratified the Constitution. Washington accepted the presidency, and Hancock remained as Massachusetts governor, his popularity unchallenged. He died in office on October 8, 1793.

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## GEORGE FRIDERIC HANDEL

**Born:** February 23, 1685

**Halle, Germany**

**Died:** April 14, 1759

**London, England**

*German-born English composer and organist*

The dramatic English oratorios (lengthy choral works of a religious nature) of the German-born English composer (writer of music) and organist George Frideric Handel were the high point of the entire baroque (seventeenth-century ornate period) oratorio tradition. His Italian operas show a nobility of style and wealth of dramatic insight.

### ***The young musician***

George Frideric Handel was born on February 23, 1685, to Georg and Dorothea Händel in Halle, Germany. To study music he had to overcome his father's objections, and at the same time follow his father's insistence that he study law. But even before Handel had finished his law courses, he was devoted to pursuing a musical career. Although his father would not even allow him to have a musical instrument of his own, he managed to find ways to practice secretly. At about the age of seven he performed at the keyboard before the duke and his court at Weissenfels, Germany. As a result he became the pupil of Friedrich Wilhelm Zaccchow, a composer and organist. Zaccchow taught him composition as well as the organ, the violin, and the oboe, and by 1695 Handel was composing for these and other instruments. From 1696 until



1701 Handel composed many works. Unfortunately, the church cantatas (music that is written for one or more singers) and all but a few pieces of chamber music (music that is meant to be performed in a small space) that he composed at the time have disappeared.

Contact with German composer Georg Philipp Telemann, and a meeting shortly afterward with the composer Agostino Steffani, spurred Handel's operatic ambitions. In 1703 he resigned his post as organist at the Halle Domkirche and left the university, moving to Hamburg, where he joined the Goosemarket Theater as a violinist. But it was Handel's exceptional skill at the keyboard that brought him employment in the performance of operas.

### **First operas**

Handel began his own operatic career with *Almira* (1704), which ran for some twenty performances—a very successful run. After several more successes, he sought richer operatic experience and left for Italy in 1706. He visited Florence, Venice, Rome, and Naples during the next three seasons, meeting almost all of the notable Italian musicians. His Italian journey resulted in two fine operas, *Rodrigo* (1707) and *Agrippina* (1709), several dramatic chamber works, and equally dramatic sacred compositions.

During a second visit to Venice, Handel met several persons interested in England who no doubt influenced his decision to try his luck as a freelance musician in London. A meeting with the manager of the King's Theatre furnished Handel with a chance to compose an opera. Within two weeks he produced the opera *Rinaldo*, which marked the high point of the London season in 1710 and 1711. Handel's course was set for the rest of his life.



*George Frideric Handel.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

### **Settling in England**

As London became Handel's permanent home, he proceeded to compose a large amount of music for harpsichord, chamber ensembles, and orchestra, as well as various works for royal occasions. Handel's compositions so impressed England's Queen Anne (1665–1714) that she awarded him an annual salary of two hundred pounds. After Anne's death, George I (1660–1727) became king of England. In 1715 Handel provided music for a royal pleasure cruise for the King, his mistresses, and several barge-loads of courtiers (members of the royal court)—the famous *Water Music*. In 1719 Handel accepted an invi-

tation to join forces with the newly founded Royal Academy of Music. Handel's operas were numerous and well-received, but despite their success the academy did not prosper.

In 1726 Handel became a citizen of England and was appointed composer of music to the Chapel Royal. The season of 1727 saw the production of Handel's *Alessandro*. This marked the beginning of an intense rivalry between Faustina Bordoni and Francesca Cuzzoni, two prima donnas (leading female opera singers) whose hostility greatly harmed the cause of Italian opera in London. Other factors no doubt lent weight to the growing public disappointment, but this single event seemed to have caused opposition to Italian opera in London and introduced a succession of developments that led to its fall.

Apparently undismayed, Handel immediately formed the New Royal Academy of Music in partnership with a Swiss entrepreneur. After a whirlwind trip to Germany to audition new singers and to visit his mother, now blind and alone, Handel returned to London in time to open the new season. Thereafter his operas flowed forth on the average of two per year. In spite of the quality of these operas, Italian opera grew ever less popular in London. In April 1737 Handel suffered a stroke. He recuperated during the summer at Aix-la-Chapelle, returning to London in time to start the next season. Finally, with the miserable failure of *Imeneo* (1740) and *Deidamia* (1741), he at last gave up and wrote no more new operas.

### *The oratorios*

Handel's ultimate failure with operas was offset by ever-increasing success with his oratorios. These provided a new vehicle, the

possibilities of which he had begun to explore and experiment with nearly a decade earlier. Indeed these established a new vogue (fashion), in which Handel fared better with London audiences than he ever had with Italian opera. As if to test a possible market for dramatic compositions in English, Handel revived past operas with revisions to the oratorio style, meeting with much success. Producing oratorios was a profitable business. As a direct consequence, the oratorio became a regular feature of each season, with Handel leading the field, as he had done previously with Italian opera.

It was obvious that the new form was on its way to becoming an established feature of English concert life. During the Lenten (the period of religious fasting for Christians) season in 1735, Handel gave no less than fourteen concerts, consisting mainly of oratorios.

Handel's personal health, however, continued to falter. In 1751 total blindness set in. From that time on he was limited to revising earlier works with outside assistance, and to improvising on organ and harpsichord in public performances. Handel's accomplishment during the last creative decade of his life seems almost miraculous when the Italian cantatas, several concertos, and a variety of other works are added to his twenty major works. He died in London on April 14, 1759.

### *Handel's creative genius*

Surveying Handel's entire creative life, one gains a sense of spontaneous (instinctive) and incredibly abundant creative flow. This is confirmed by the marvelous collections of his work preserved at the Fitzwilliam and British museums in England, which reveal not only the enormous bulk of his creative achieve-

ment but also something of his uncompromising critical judgment. There is scarcely a page without deletions; frequently, he struck out whole passages. He obviously knew the art of heavy pruning, and his works profited greatly from it.

Handel's propensity to "write like the very devil" proved invaluable, in view of the demands imposed upon his time and energies in operatic composition throughout most of his career. Time after time he found it necessary to meet crises without much time for creative gestation (generation). Handel was at heart a dramatic composer for whom setting the scene and atmosphere and depiction of character thrust all other considerations into the background.

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## THOMAS HARDY

**Born:** June 2, 1840

Higher Bockhampton, Dorset, England

**Died:** January 11, 1928

Dorchester, England

*English author, novelist, poet, and dramatist*

**T**he works of the English novelist, poet, and dramatist Thomas Hardy unite the Victorian (c. 1840–1900) and modern eras. They reveal him to be a kind and gentle man, terribly aware of the pain human beings suffer in their struggle for life.

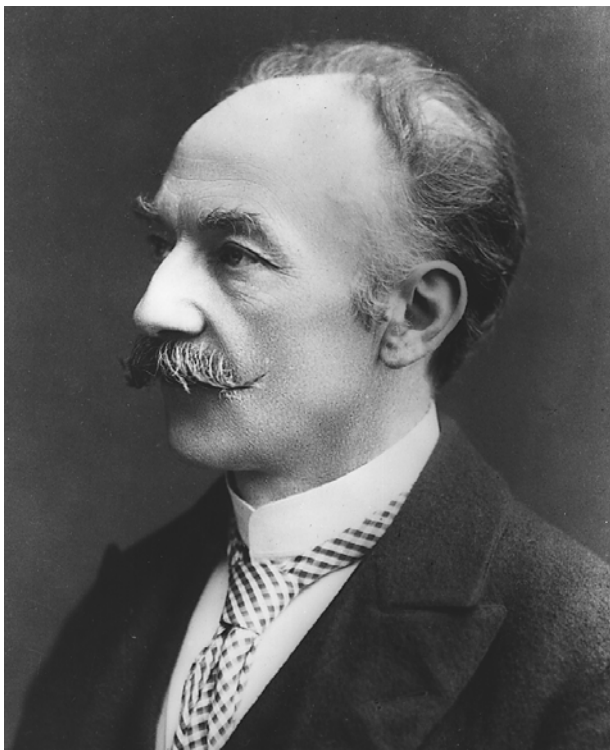
#### **Childhood**

Thomas Hardy was born on June 2, 1840, in Higher Bockhampton in Dorset, England, which formed part of the "Wessex" of his novels and poems. The first of four children, Hardy was born small and thought at birth to be dead. He grew to be a small man only a little over five feet tall. Hardy learned to love books through his mother, Jemina, and was able to read before starting school. He was taught by his father, also named Thomas, to play the violin, and he often journeyed about the countryside playing for dances and storing up the impressions of rural life that make up so large a part of his work.

Hardy attended a private school in Dorchester, England, where he learned Latin, French, and German. In 1856 at the age of sixteen, Hardy became an apprentice (a person who works for someone in order to gain experience in a trade) to John Hicks, an architect in Dorchester. At this time he thought seriously of attending university and entering the Church, but he did not do so. In 1862 he went to London, England, to work. Also at this time, Hardy began writing poetry after being impressed by Reverend William Barnes, a local poet.

#### **Early writings**

In London Hardy continued to write poetry and began sending his poems to publishers, who quickly returned them. He kept



Thomas Hardy.

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many of the poems and published them in 1898 and afterward. Back in Dorchester in 1867 while working for Hicks, he wrote a novel, *The Poor Man and the Lady*, which he was advised not to publish because it was too critical of Victorian society. Told to write a novel with a plot, he turned out *Desperate Remedies* (1871), which was unsuccessful.

Meanwhile Hardy had begun to work for Gerald Crickmay, who had taken over Hicks's business. Crickmay sent Hardy to Cornwall, England, where on March 7, 1870, he met Emma Lavinia Gifford, with whom he fell in love. Hardy could have kept on with architecture, but he was a "born bookworm," as he

said, and in spite of his lack of success with literature he decided to continue writing, hoping eventually to make enough money so he could marry Gifford. Their courtship is recorded in *A Pair of Blue Eyes* and in some of Hardy's most beautiful poems, among them "When I Set Out for Lyonesse" and "Beeny Cliff."

For *Under the Greenwood Tree* (1872) he earned 30 pounds and the book was well received. At the same time he was asked to write a novel for serialization (published in parts) in a magazine. In September 1872 *A Pair of Blue Eyes* began to appear, even though only a few chapters had been completed. *Far from the Madding Crowd* (1874), was published in magazines and was a success both financially and critically. Finally making a living from literature, Hardy married Gifford in September of 1874.

### Later novels

Hardy preferred his poetry to his prose (nonpoetry writings) and thought his novels merely a way to earn a living. But his best novels—*The Return of the Native* (1878), *The Mayor of Casterbridge* (1886), and *Tess of the D'Urbervilles* (1891)—were much more than magazine fiction. The people were dominated by the countryside of "Wessex," Hardy's name for the area in southwest England where he set most of his novels, and the area is as memorable as the people.

Good or bad, Hardy's novels brought him money, fame, and acquaintance with greatness. With his wife he travelled in Germany, France, and Italy; he built Max Gate near Dorchester, where he lived from 1886 until his death; he frequently dined out, meeting poets Matthew Arnold (1822–1888), Robert Browning (1812–1889), Alfred, Lord Ten-

nyson (1809–1892), and others. Writer Robert Louis Stevenson (1850–1894) sought him out and visited him at Max Gate. It was a successful life and seemed happy enough, but he had a strained relationship with his wife.

Though Hardy's novels seldom end happily, he was not, he stated, a pessimist (taking the least hopeful view of a situation). He called himself a "meliorist," one who believed that man can live with some happiness if he understands his place in the universe and accepts it. He ceased to be a Christian, and he read the works of naturalist Charles Darwin (1809–1892) and accepted the idea of evolution, the theory that animals, including man, developed from earlier species. Later he took to reading philosopher Arthur Schopenhauer (1788–1860) and developed the notion of the Immanent Will, the blind force that drives the universe and in the distant future may see and understand itself.

### **Poetry and drama**

Collecting new and old poems, Hardy published *Wessex Poems* (1898) and *Poems of the Past and Present* (1902). Then he began to publish *The Dynasts*, an immense drama of the Napoleonic Wars (a series of wars from 1792 to 1815 between France and different European powers) which depicts all the characters, even French emperor Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821), as a puppet whose actions are determined by the Immanent Will. The "epic-drama" evolved into nineteen acts and 130 scenes and was published in three parts in 1903, 1905, and 1908. Meant to be read, not acted, it is frequently called Hardy's masterwork.

Meanwhile Hardy continued to publish his shorter verse in *Time's Laughingstocks*

(1909). His most famous single volume of poems, *Satires of Circumstance*, appeared in 1914. It revealed the extremes of Hardy's emotional range in the short, bitter poems referred to in the title and the longer poems about his first wife, who died in 1912. *Selected Poems* (1916), *Moments of Vision* (1917), *Late Lyrics and Earlier* (1922), and *Human Shows* (1925) were published during the remainder of his life. *Winter Words* (1928) was published after his death.

Because in most cases Hardy published his poems years after he wrote them, the dates of when he wrote these pieces can be determined only by his references to them in *The Early Life of Thomas Hardy* or *The Later Years*. Because of this it is difficult to show Hardy's growth as a poet. In fact, he hardly grew at all. In almost all his poems Hardy uses Victorian diction (choice of words), regular meters (rhythm), and neat stanzas (divisions within a poem). These cause him to be called a Victorian poet, but he also uses everyday words. These, with his dark view of the human condition and his blending of humor and pity, rank him with modern poets.

In 1914 Hardy married Florence Emily Dugdale, who had been his secretary for several years. He continued to receive famous visitors at Max Gate and continued to visit London for special occasions. He died on January 11, 1928. His heart was buried in the churchyard at Stinsford, England, his ashes in Westminster Abbey.

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## STEPHEN HAWKING

**Born:** January 8, 1942

**Oxford, England**

*English scientist, physicist, and mathematician*

**B**ritish physicist and mathematician Stephen Hawking has made fundamental contributions to the science of cosmology—the study of the origins, structure, and space-time relationships of the universe.

### *Early life*

Stephen William Hawking was born on January 8, 1942, in Oxford, England. His father, a well-known researcher in tropical medicine, urged his son to seek a career in medicine, but Stephen found biology and medicine were not exact enough. Therefore, he turned to the study of mathematics and physics.

Hawking was not an outstanding student at St. Alban's School, nor later at Oxford University, which he entered in 1959. He was a social young man who did little schoolwork because he was able to grasp the essentials of a mathematics or physics problem quickly. At home he reports, "I would take things apart

to see how they worked, but they didn't often go back together." His early school years were marked by unhappiness at school, with his peers and on the playing field. While at Oxford he became increasingly interested in physics (study of matter and energy), eventually graduating with a first class honors in physics (1962). He immediately began postgraduate studies at Cambridge University.

### *Graduate school*

The onset of Hawking's graduate education at Cambridge marked a turning point in his life. It was then that he embarked upon the formal study of cosmology, which focused his study. And it was then that he was first stricken with Lou Gehrig's disease, a weakening disease of the nervous and muscular system that eventually led to his total confinement in a wheelchair. At Cambridge his talents were recognized, and he was encouraged to carry on his studies despite his growing physical disabilities. His marriage in 1965 was an important step in his emotional life. Marriage gave him, he recalled, the determination to live and make professional progress in the world of science. Hawking received his doctorate degree in 1966. He then began his lifelong research and teaching association with Cambridge University.

### *Theory of singularity*

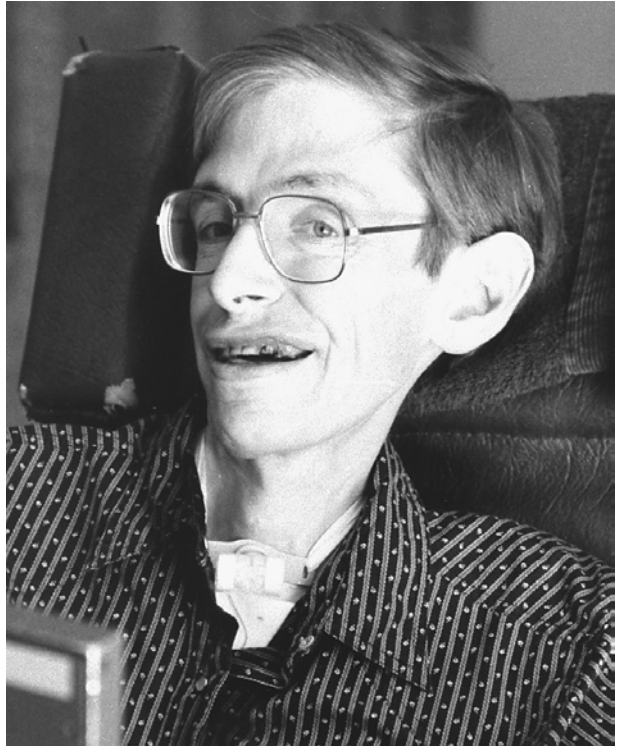
Hawking made his first major contribution to science with his idea of singularity, a work that grew out of his collaboration (working relationship) with Roger Penrose. A singularity is a place in either space or time at which some quantity becomes infinite (without an end). Such a place is found in a black hole, the final stage of a collapsed star, where

the gravitational field has infinite strength. Penrose proved that a singularity could exist in the space-time of a real universe.

Drawing upon the work of both Penrose and Albert Einstein (1879–1955), Hawking demonstrated that our universe had its origins in a singularity. In the beginning all of the matter in the universe was concentrated in a single point, making a very small but tremendously dense body. Ten to twenty billion years ago that body exploded in a big bang that initiated time and the universe. Hawking was able to produce current astrophysical (having to do with the study of stars and the events that occur around them) research to support the big bang theory of the origin of the universe and oppose the competing steady-state theory.

Hawking's research led him to study the characteristics of the best-known singularity: the black hole. A black hole's edges, called the event horizon, can be detected. Hawking proved that the surface area (measurement of the surface) of the event horizon could only increase, not decrease, and that when two black holes merged the surface area of the new hole was larger than the sum of the two original.

Hawking's continuing examination of the nature of black holes led to two important discoveries. The first, that black holes can give off heat, opposed the claim that nothing could escape from a black hole. The second concerned the size of black holes. As originally conceived, black holes were immense in size because they were the end result of the collapse of gigantic stars. Hawking suggested the existence of millions of mini-black holes formed by the force of the original big bang explosion.



*Stephen Hawking.*

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### ***Unified field theory***

In the 1980s Hawking answered one of Einstein's unanswered theories, the famous unified field theory. A complete unified theory includes the four main interactions known to modern physics. The unified theory explains the conditions that were present at the beginning of the universe as well as the features of the physical laws of nature. When humans develop the unified field theory, said Hawking, they will "know the mind of God."

### ***Publications***

As Hawking's physical condition grew worse his intellectual achievements increased.

He wrote down his ideas in *A Brief History of Time: From the Big Bang to Black Holes*. It sold over a million copies and was listed as the best-selling nonfiction book for over a year.

In 1993 Hawking wrote *Black Holes and Baby Universes and Other Essays*, which, in addition to his scientific thoughts, contains chapters about Hawking's personal life. He coauthored a book in 1996 with Sir Roger Penrose titled *The Nature of Space and Time*. Issues discussed in this book include whether the universe has boundaries and if it will continue to expand forever. Hawking says yes to the first question and no to the second, while Penrose argues the opposite. Hawking joined Penrose again the following year in the creation of another book, *The Large, the Small, and the Human Mind* (1997). In 2002 he was likewise celebrating the publication of *The Universe in a Nutshell*. Despite decreasing health, Hawking traveled on the traditional book release circuit. People with disabilities look to him as a hero.

#### **Honors and commitments**

Hawking's work in modern cosmology and in theoretical astronomy and physics is widely recognized. He became a fellow of the Royal Society of London in 1974 and five years later was named to a professorial chair at Cambridge University that was once held by Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727). Beyond these honors he has earned a host of honorary degrees, awards, prizes, and lectureships from the major universities and scientific societies of Europe and America. By the end of the twentieth century Stephen Hawking had become one of the best-known scientists in the world. His popularity includes endorsing a wireless Internet connection and speaking to

wheelchair-bound youth. He also had a special appearance on the television series *Star Trek*.

Though very private, it is generally known that Stephen's first marriage ended in 1991. He has three children from that marriage.

When asked about his objectives, Hawking told Zygon in a 1995 interview, "My goal is a complete understanding of the universe, why it is as it is and why it exists at all."

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## NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE

**Born:** July 4, 1804

Salem, Massachusetts

**Died:** May 19, 1864

Plymouth, New Hampshire

*American writer*

**T**he work of American fiction writer Nathaniel Hawthorne was based on the history of his Puritan ancestors



and the New England of his own day. Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* and *The House of the Seven Gables* are classics of American literature.

### Childhood

Nathaniel Hawthorne was born in Salem, Massachusetts, on July 4, 1804, into the sixth generation of his Salem family. His ancestors included businessmen, judges, and seamen—all Puritans, a strict religious discipline. Two aspects of his background especially affected his imagination and writing career. The Hathornes (Nathaniel added the “w” to the name) had been involved in religious persecution (intense harassment) with their first American ancestor, William. Another ancestor, John Hathorne, was one of the three judges at the seventeenth-century Salem witchcraft trials, where dozens of people were accused of, and later executed for, being “witches.”

Nathaniel's father, a sea captain, died in 1808, leaving his wife and three children dependent on relatives. Nathaniel, the only son, spent his early years in Salem and in Maine. A leg injury forced Hawthorne to remain immobile for a considerable period, during which he developed an exceptional taste for reading and thinking. His childhood was calm, a little isolated but far from unhappy, especially since as a handsome and attractive only son he was idolized by his mother and his two sisters.

With the aid of his wealthy uncles, Hawthorne attended Bowdoin College from 1821 to 1825. Among his classmates were poet Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807–1882), and future U.S. president Franklin Pierce (1804–1869). At Bowdoin, Hawthorne read widely and received solid



Nathaniel Hawthorne.

instruction in English composition and the classics, particularly in Latin. His refusal to participate in public speaking prevented his achievement of an outstanding academic record, but he was in good standing. On one occasion he was fined 50 cents for gambling at cards, but his behavior was not otherwise singled out for official disapproval. Though small and isolated, the Bowdoin of the 1820s was an unusually good college, and Hawthorne undoubtedly profited from his formal education. He also made loyal friends.

### Years in seclusion

Returning from Bowdoin, Hawthorne spent the years 1825 to 1837 in his mother's

Salem household. Later he looked back upon these years as a period of dreamlike isolation and solitude, spent in a haunted room. During these “solitary years” he learned to write tales and sketches that are still unique.

Recent biographers have shown that this period of Hawthorne’s life was less lonely than he remembered it to be. In truth, he did have social engagements, played cards, and went to the theatre. Nevertheless, he consistently remembered these twelve years as a strange, dark dream, though his view of the influence of these years varied.

### **Writing short stories**

Most of Hawthorne’s early stories were published anonymously (without an author’s name) in magazines and giftbooks. In 1837 the publication of *Twice-Told Tales* somewhat lifted this spell of darkness. After *Twice-Told Tales* he added two later collections, *Mosses from an Old Manse* (1846) and *The Snow-Image* (1851), along with *Grandfather’s Chair* (1841), a history of New England for children. Hawthorne’s short stories came slowly but steadily into critical favor, and the best of them have become American classics.

By his own account it was Hawthorne’s love of his Salem neighbor Sophia Peabody that brought him from his “haunted chamber” out into the world. His books were far from profitable enough to support a wife and family, so in 1838 he went to work in the Boston Custom House and then spent part of 1841 in the famous Brook Farm community in hopes of finding a pleasant and economical home for Sophia and himself.

Hawthorne and Sophia, whom he finally married in 1842, resorted not to Brook Farm

but to the Old Manse in Concord, Massachusetts, where they spent several years of happiness in as much quiet living as they could achieve. Concord was home to Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882), Henry David Thoreau (1817–1862), and Ellery Channing (1780–1842), and Hawthorne was in frequent contact with these important thinkers, though he did not take to their philosophical lifestyles.

### **Writing the novels**

Facing the world once more, Hawthorne obtained in 1846 the position of surveyor (one who maps out new lands) in the Salem Custom House, but was relieved of this position in 1848 because of his political ties. His dismissal, however, turned out to be a blessing, since it gave him time in which to write his greatest success, *The Scarlet Letter*.

The period 1850 to 1853 was Hawthorne’s most productive, as he wrote *The House of the Seven Gables* and *The Blithedale Romance*, along with *A Wonder Book* (1852) and *Tanglewood Tales* (1853). During 1850 the Hawthornes lived at the Red House in Lenox in the Berkshire Hills, and Hawthorne formed a memorable friendship with novelist Herman Melville (1819–1912). The association was more important to Melville than to Hawthorne, since Melville was fifteen years younger and the much more impressionable (easily influenced) of the two men. It left its mark in dedication of his *Moby-Dick*, and in some wonderful letters.

### **Years abroad**

In 1852 Franklin Pierce was elected president of the United States, and Hawthorne, who wrote his campaign biography, was appointed to the important overseas

post of American consul (advisor) at Liverpool, England. He served in this post from 1853 to 1857. These English years resulted in *Our Old Home* (1863), a volume drawn from the since-published "English Note-Books."

In 1857 the Hawthornes left England for Italy, where they spent their time primarily in Rome and Florence. They returned to England, where Hawthorne finished his last and longest complete novel, *The Marble Faun* (1860). They finally returned to the United States, after an absence of seven years, and took up residence in their first permanent home, The Wayside, at Concord.

### **Last years**

Although he had always been an exceptionally active man, Hawthorne's health began to fail him. Since he refused to submit to any thorough medical examination, the details of his declining health remain mysterious. Hawthorne died on May 19, 1864. He had set off for the New Hampshire hills with Franklin Pierce, an activity he had always enjoyed, hoping to regain his health. But he died the second night in Plymouth, New Hampshire, presumably in his sleep.

Hawthorne once said that New England was enough to fill his heart, yet he sought the broader experience of Europe. Modest in expectations, he had nonetheless desired to live fully. Hawthorne's life and writings present a complex puzzle. A born writer, he suffered the difficulties of his profession in early-nineteenth-century America, an environment unfriendly to artists.

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## WILLIAM RANDOLPH HEARST

**Born:** April 29, 1863

**San Francisco, California**

**Died:** August 14, 1951

**Beverly Hills, California**

*American publisher and editor*

For almost half a century William Randolph Hearst was the American publisher, editor, and proprietor (business owner) of the most extensive journalistic empire ever assembled by one man. His personality and use of wealth permanently left a mark on American media.

### **Early years**

On April 29, 1863, William Randolph Hearst was born in San Francisco, California. He received the best education that his multimillionaire father and his sophisticated schoolteacher mother (more than twenty years her husband's junior) could buy—private tutors, private schools, grand tours of Europe, and Harvard College. Hearst's father had been a keen geologist (student of the earth's history as recorded in rocks) and lucky gold miner during the 1849 Gold Rush. As



William Randolph Hearst.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

partner in some of the largest mines in America, George Hearst easily entered politics as a California Senator. To help him politically, he purchased the then failing *San Francisco Examiner*. Meanwhile, his son, William Randolph, was routinely being expelled from school due to pranks. He was even expelled from Harvard after sending engraved silver chamber pots (prior to indoor plumbing, people kept pots under their beds to use for relieving themselves at night) to his professors. But Hearst inherited his father's ambition and energy. William's mother, the cultured parent, took William on two art tours in Europe before he was sixteen years old.

Young Hearst's journalistic career began in 1887, two years after his Harvard expulsion. "I want the *San Francisco Examiner*," he wrote to his father, who owned the newspaper and granted the request.

When William's father died, he left his millions in mining properties, not to his son, but to his wife—who compensated by giving her son ten thousand dollars a month until her death. In turn the gray-eyed, soft-spoken William Randolph Hearst invested frantically and heavily.

### *Building a journalistic empire*

The *Daily Examiner* became young Hearst's laboratory, where he gained a talent for making fake news and faking real news in such a way as to create maximum public shock. From the outset he obtained top talent by paying top prices.

To get an all-star cast and an audience of millions, however, Hearst had to move his headquarters to New York City, where he immediately purchased the old and dying *New York Morning Journal*. Within a year Hearst ran up the circulation from seventy-seven thousand to over a million by spending enough money to beat the aging Joseph Pulitzer's *World* at its own sensationalist (scandalous) game. Sometimes Hearst hired away the *World's* more aggressive executives and reporters; sometimes he outbid all competitors in the open market. One of Hearst's editors was paid twice as much in salary as the sale price of the *New York World*.

Hearst attracted readers by adding heated reporting of sports, crime, sex, scandal, and human-interest stories. "A Hearst newspaper is like a screaming woman running down the street with her throat cut,"

said Hearst writer Arthur James Pegler. Hearst's slam-bang showmanship attracted new readers and nonreaders.

During the last five years of the nineteenth century, Hearst set his pattern for the first half of the twentieth century. The *Journal* supported the Democratic Party, yet Hearst opposed the campaign of Democratic presidential candidate William Jennings Bryan (1860–1925) in 1896. In 1898 Hearst backed the Spanish-American War (1898; a war in which the United States aided Cuba in its fight for freedom from Spanish rule), which Bryan and the Democrats opposed. Further, Hearst's wealth cut him off from the troubled masses to whom his newspapers appealed. He could not grasp the basic problems the issue of the war with Spain raised.

### ***Entering politics***

Having shaken up San Francisco with the *Examiner* and New York City with the *Journal*, Hearst established two newspapers in Chicago, Illinois, the *Chicago American* in 1900 and the *Chicago Examiner* in 1902; a newspaper in Boston, Massachusetts, the *Boston American*; and a newspaper in Los Angeles, California, the *Los Angeles Examiner* in 1904. These added newspapers marked more than an extension of Hearst's journalistic empire, they reflected his sweeping decision to seek the U.S. presidency. Perhaps his ambition came from a desire to follow in his father's footsteps. His personality and fortune were not suited to a political career however.

In 1902 and 1904 Hearst won election to the House of Representatives as a New York Democrat. Except, his journalistic activities and his \$2 million presidential campaign left him little time to speak, vote, or answer

roll calls in Congress. His nonattendance angered his colleagues and the voters who had elected him. Nevertheless, he found time to run as an independent candidate for mayor of New York City in 1905, and as a Democratic candidate for governor in 1906. His loss in both elections ended Hearst's political career.

### ***Personal life***

In 1903, the day before his fortieth birthday, he married twenty-one-year-old Millicent Willson, a showgirl, thus giving up Tessie Powers, a waitress he had supported since his Harvard days. The Hearsts had five boys, but in 1917 Hearst fell in love with another showgirl, twenty-year-old Marion Davies of the *Ziegfeld Follies*. He maintained a relationship with her that ended only at his death.

When Hearst's mother died, he came into his inheritance and took up permanent residence on his father's 168,000-acre ranch in southern California. There he spent \$37 million on a private castle, put \$50 million into New York City real estate, and put another \$50 million into his art collection—the largest ever assembled by a single individual.

### ***Hearst publications***

During the 1920s one American in every four read a Hearst newspaper. Hearst owned twenty daily and eleven Sunday papers in thirteen cities, the King Features syndication service (organization that places featured articles or comics in multiple papers at once), the International News Service, the *American Weekly* (a syndicated Sunday supplement), International Newsreel, and six magazines,

including *Cosmopolitan*, *Good Housekeeping*, and *Harper's Bazaar*.

Despite Hearst's wealth, expansion, and spending, his popularity with the public as well as with the government was low. Originally a progressive Democrat, he had no bargaining power with Republican Theodore Roosevelt (1859–1919). Hearst fought every Democratic reform leader from Bryan to Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945), and he opposed American participation in both world wars.

In 1927 the Hearst newspapers printed forged (faked) documents, which supported an accusation that the Mexican government had paid several U.S. senators more than \$1 million to support a Central American plot to wage war against the United States. From this scandal the Hearst press suffered not at all.

In the next ten years, however, Hearst's funds and the empire suddenly ran out. In 1937 the two corporations that controlled the empire found themselves \$126 million in debt. Hearst had to turn them over to a seven-member committee whose purpose was to save what they could. They managed to hold off economic failure only by selling off much of Hearst's private fortune and all of his public powers as a newspaper owner.

William Randolph Hearst died on August 14, 1951, in Beverly Hills, California.

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## WERNER HEISENBERG

**Born:** December 5, 1901

**Würzburg, Germany**

**Died:** February 1, 1976

**Munich, Germany**

*German physicist*

German physicist Werner Heisenberg was a leader in physics, winning the 1932 Nobel Prize in Physics for his discovery of the uncertainty principle, which states that it is impossible to specify the exact position and momentum of a particle (tiny piece of matter) at the same time.

### **Early life**

Werner Karl Heisenberg was born on December 5, 1901, in Würzburg, Germany, the son of August and Annie Wecklein Heisenberg. As a boy Heisenberg began playing the piano early and was playing master compositions by the age of thirteen. It was his father's commitment to academic learning, however, that led him to pursue the science he loved. He graduated from the University of Munich, where his father was professor of Greek language and literature.

Heisenberg was also a regular hiker and an eager student of classical literature and philosophy. He amazed family and friends when he taught himself calculus (a method of computing in a special notation) and tried to publish a scientific paper as a teen. Even though his strongest interest in life was science, music was a lifetime companion for him. A hard worker, Heisenberg worked on a farm for three summers in order to pay for his tuition to the University of Munich. At the university, where he enrolled in 1920, Heisenberg soon established close contact with Arthur Sommerfeld, a chief figure in early modern physics. After more hard work he received his doctorate in Munich in 1923. From there Heisenberg, on a Rockefeller grant, went to the Niels Bohr Institute in Copenhagen, Denmark, where he eagerly studied the most creative and up-to-date thoughts on atomic (related to the smallest particles of mass) theory.

### ***His landmark papers***

The Bohr's institute was the perfect setting for young Heisenberg to have his knowledge and interests grow. No sooner had Heisenberg completed his stay in Copenhagen than he worked out a complete method of calculating the energy levels of "atomic oscillators" (devices for producing alternating [back and forth] current). The method brought about very good results. A fellow physicist had it sent to the *Physikalische Zeitschrift*, where it was immediately printed under the title, "On Quantum Mechanical Interpretation of Kinematic and Mechanical Relations." Heisenberg's paper earned him immediate fame and recognition. In 1926 he was appointed lecturer in theoret-



Werner Heisenberg.

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ical physics (physics that exists only in theory) at the University of Copenhagen.

It was at Copenhagen that Heisenberg formulated the famous uncertainty principle, which states that it is impossible to specify the exact position and momentum of a particle at the same time. This was published in an article entitled, "On the Visualizable Content of Quantum Theoretical Kinematics and Mechanics." Heisenberg's "The Physical Principles of the Quantum Theory" is also considered a classic in this field. In 1927, at the age of twenty-six, he became professor of theoretical physics at the University of Leipzig. He received the Nobel Prize for physics in

1932. During this outbreak of academic activity, he married Elisabeth Schumacher. They eventually had seven children.

### Questionable role in war

As a theoretical scientist, Heisenberg was initially held in low regard and was even considered suspect by the Nazi (German party in control from 1933–45 under the leadership of Adolf Hitler [1889–1945]) government. However, when World War II (1939–45; a war that pitted Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States against Germany, Italy, and Japan) began, the government appointed him as director of the German uranium (a dangerous element) project, and he worked on developing an atomic bomb for Germany. Heisenberg was arrested and placed in captivity in England from April 1945 until the summer of 1946. His role during the war continues to be a source of great debate.

### Later career

After World War II Heisenberg did much to reorganize scientific research. In the early 1950s he worked toward the formulation of a “unified [all-encompassing] theory of fundamental [basic] particles,” stressing the role of symmetry (having balanced size and features) principles. This theory was discussed at length at an international conference in 1958. He presented his thought on this subject in the introduction to the *Unified Field Theory of Elementary Particles* (1966).

In 1955 and 1956 Heisenberg wrote and published *Physics and Philosophy: The Revolution in Modern Science*. He also published the autobiographical (about oneself) *Physics and Beyond* (1971), as well as several books deal-

ing with the philosophical and cultural significance of atomic and nuclear physics.

Heisenberg retired in 1970. His health began to fail in 1973, and shortly thereafter he became seriously ill, dying on February 1, 1976, in Munich, Germany.

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## JOSEPH HELLER

**Born:** May 1, 1923

Brooklyn, New York

**Died:** December 12, 1999

East Hampton, New York

American author

Joseph Heller was a popular and respected writer whose first and best-known novel, *Catch-22* (1961), was considered a classic piece of literature in the second half of the twentieth century.



### ***Childhood in Brooklyn***

Joseph Heller was born in Brooklyn, New York, to first generation Russian-Jewish immigrants. His father, a bakery-truck driver, died after a surgical operation when Heller was only five years old. Many critics believe that Heller developed the dark, wisecracking humor that marked his writing style while growing up near Coney Island, a famous amusement park in Brooklyn. Heller recalled little childhood influence in the literary world except for *The Illiad* by Homer, an eighth-century B.C.E. poet.

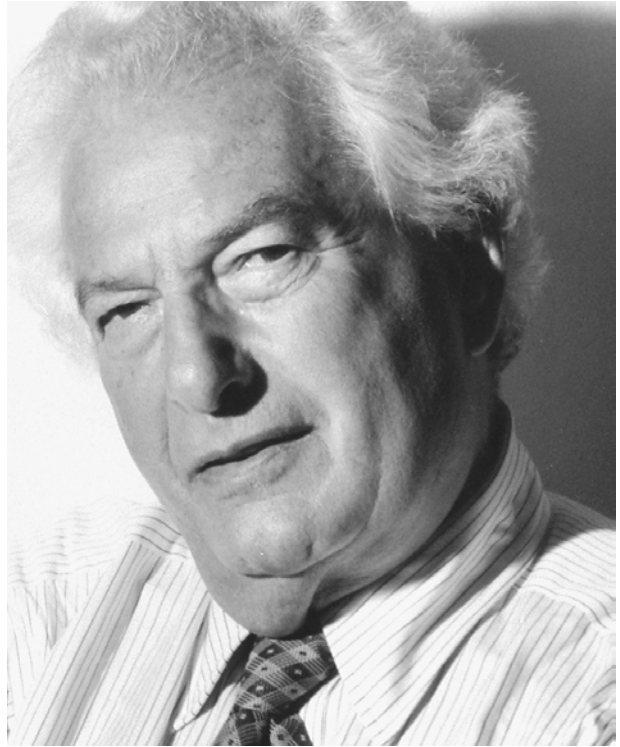
### ***Education and the military***

After graduating from high school in 1941, Heller worked briefly in an insurance office, and in 1942 he enlisted in the Army Air Corps after America entered World War II (1939–45; a war in which France, Great Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan). Two years later he was sent to Corsica, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, where he flew sixty combat missions as a fighter pilot, earning an Air Medal and a Presidential Unit Citation. It is generally agreed that Heller's war years in the Mediterranean had only a minimal impact on the creation of *Catch-22*.

After Heller left the military in 1945, he married Shirley Held and began his college education. He obtained a bachelor's degree in English from New York University, a master's degree from Columbia University, and attended Oxford University as a Fulbright Scholar for a year before becoming an English instructor at Pennsylvania State University.

### ***Catch-22***

Two years later Heller began working as an advertising copywriter, securing positions



*Joseph Heller.*

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at such magazines as *Time*, *Look*, and *McCall's* from 1952 to 1961. During this time Heller was also writing short stories and scripts for film and television, as well as working on *Catch-22*. After the success of *Catch-22*, Heller quit his job at *McCall's* and concentrated exclusively on writing fiction and plays.

*Catch-22* concerns a World War II fighter pilot named Yossarian who believes his foolish, ambitious, mean-spirited commanding officers are more dangerous than the enemy. In order to avoid flying more missions, Yossarian retreats to a hospital with a mysterious liver complaint, wrecks his plane, and tries to get himself declared insane. Various

defined throughout the novel, “Catch-22” refers to the ways in which officials in command control the people who work for them.

“I never thought of *Catch-22* as a comic novel,” Heller says in the *New York Times*. “[But] . . . I wanted the reader to be amused, and . . . I wanted him to be ashamed that he was amused. My literary bent . . . is more toward the morbid [gruesome] and the tragic. Great carnage [death] is taking place and my idea was to use humor to make ridiculous the things that are irrational and very terrible.”

### Later works

While Heller’s place in twentieth-century letters is secured with *Catch-22*, he is also highly regarded for his other works, which present a comic vision of modern society with serious moral connections. A major theme throughout his writing is the conflict that occurs when individuals interact with such powerful institutions as corporations, the military, and the government.

Heller’s second novel, *Something Happened*, centers on Bob Slocum, a middle-aged businessman who has a large, successful company but feels emotionally empty. While initial reviews of *Something Happened* were mixed, more recent criticism has often deemed this novel superior to and more sophisticated than *Catch-22*.

*Good as Gold* (1979) marks Heller’s first fictional use of his Jewish heritage and childhood experiences in Coney Island. In *Picture This* (1988), Heller utilizes Rembrandt’s painting “Aristotle Contemplating the Bust of Homer” to draw parallels between ancient Greece, seventeenth-century Holland, and contemporary America.

### Declining health

In the early 1980s Heller was stricken with a nerve disease, Guillain-Barre syndrome, that left him paralyzed for several months. Though the author became too weak to move and almost too weak to breathe on his own, he eventually regained his strength and recovered from the often fatal disorder. After completing *God Knows*, Heller began writing his first nonfiction book, *No Laughing Matter*, with Speed Vogel, a friend who helped him considerably during his illness.

Heller died of a heart attack on December 12, 1999, at his East Hampton, New York, home. After Heller’s death, Simon & Schuster published Heller’s final work, *A Portrait of an Artist, as an Old Man*, a collection of memoirs and essays by one of the world’s most influential writers of the twentieth century.

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LILLIAN  
HELLMAN

**Born:** June 20, 1906

New Orleans, Louisiana

**Died:** June 30, 1984

Vineyard Haven, Massachusetts

*American playwright*

Lillian Hellman, American playwright, wrote a series of powerful, realistic plays that made her one of America's major dramatists. She explored highly controversial themes, with many of her plays reflecting her outspoken political and social views.

### **Early life**

Lillian Florence Hellman was born in New Orleans, Louisiana, on June 20, 1906, of Jewish parents, Max Hellman, a shoe salesman, and Julia Newshouse, whose family had made a small fortune in the banking industry. In 1910 her family moved to New York City, where she attended public schools. Her schooling was constantly interrupted by her father's frequent business trips to New Orleans, which would sometimes last up to six months.

Hellman went on to study at New York University (1923–1924) and Columbia University (1924). Her marriage to Arthur Kober in 1925, who was a writer for the *New Yorker*, helped Hellman get various jobs around New York City, including reading scripts for studios and working as a book reviewer for the *New York Herald Tribune*. The marriage ended in 1932.

Hellman worked as a manuscript reader for Liveright Publishers before becoming main play reader for producer Herman Shumlin. In 1930, ready to drop her idea of being a writer, she was talked out of quitting by Dashiell Hammett, who became her life-long mentor (teacher) and partner.

### **Major works invited controversy**

After a “year and a half of stumbling stubbornness,” Hellman finished “The Chil-

dren's Hour” (1934), based on an actual incident in Scotland. The action of the play is triggered by a child's accusation of sexual relations against two female teachers, which leads to one woman's suicide (where a person takes his or her own life). The play reveals Hellman's sharp characterizations and clear, moral comment on a theme considered dramatically untouchable at the time.

“In Days to Come” (1936), a play of a crumbling family as well as of the struggle between union (an organization that fights for workers' rights) and management, Hellman's dramatic touch faltered. However, her next play, “The Little Foxes” (1939), ranks as one of the most powerful in American drama. Set in the South, it depicts a family almost completely engulfed by greed and hate.

During World War II (1939–45; a war in which France, Great Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan), Hellman wrote two plays. “Watch on the Rhine” (1941), which received the New York City Critics Circle Award, was a drama about an underground hero, and spoke out harshly against the Nazis (a radical political party that controlled Germany leading up to, and during, World War II). “The Searching Wind” (1944) championed the movement against fascism (a form of government characterized by leadership by one all-powerful ruler), criticizing the failure of influential Americans to halt the rise of Germany's Adolph Hitler (1889–1945) and Italy's Benito Mussolini (1883–1945).

In “Another Part of the Forest” (1946), Hellman again portrayed the Hubbard family of “The Little Foxes”; she also directed the play. “Autumn Garden” (1951) lacked the usual passion of her dramas but was a touch-



Lillian Hellman.

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ing and revealing insight into a southern boardinghouse. The style of the play is sometimes compared to the Russian writer Anton Chekhov's (1860–1904) work. "Toys in the Attic" (1960), a devastating portrait of possessive love set in New Orleans, won her another New York Critics Circle Award.

#### **Work outside of the theatre**

Hellman demonstrated her versatility as an author with a witty book for the musical "Candide" (1956); adaptations of two plays, "Montserrat" (1949) and Jean Anouilh's "The Lark" (1956); and her departure from realism (realistic pieces) in the humorous play of

Jewish family life, "My Mother, My Father and Me" (1963). She also edited *The Letters of Anton Chekhov* in 1955.

Hellman published three memoirs (personal writings) dealing with her career, personal relationships, and political activities: *An Unfinished Woman* (1969), *Pentimento: A Book of Portraits* (1973), and *Scoundrel Time* (1976). These works included her sharp criticism of the House Unamerican Activities Committee headed by Senator Joseph McCarthy (1908–1957), which accused hundreds of politicians, artists, and other Americans of being communists, the political design where goods and services are owned and distributed by the government. There was much discussion at the time about whether the content of these memoirs was greatly enhanced by Hellman.

Hellman received honorary degrees from several colleges and universities. Her theatrical awards included the New York Drama Critics Circle Award (1941 and 1960); a Gold Medal from the Academy of Arts and Letters for Distinguished Achievement in the Theatre (1964); and election to the Theatre Hall of Fame (1973). She also received the National Book Award in 1969 for *An Unfinished Woman* and a nomination in 1974 for *Pentimento: A Book of Portraits*. Hellman died June 30, 1984, in Vineyard Haven, Massachusetts.

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## ERNEST HEMINGWAY

**Born:** July 21, 1898

**Oak Park, Illinois**

**Died:** July 2, 1961

**Ketchum, Idaho**

*American author*

**E**rnest Hemingway, American Nobel Prize-winning author, was one of the most celebrated and influential literary stylists of the twentieth century. His critical reputation rests solidly upon a small body of exceptional writing, set apart by its style, emotional content, and dramatic intensity of vision.

### *Childhood in the Midwest*

Ernest Miller Hemingway was born in Oak Park, Illinois, on July 21, 1898. His father was a country physician who taught his son hunting and fishing; his mother was a religious woman, active in church affairs, who led her son to play the cello and sing in the choir. Hemingway's early years were spent largely in fighting the feminine influence of his mother while feeding off the influence of his father. He spent the summers with his family in the woods of northern Michigan, where he often accompanied his father on professional calls. The discovery of his father's apparent lack of courage, later

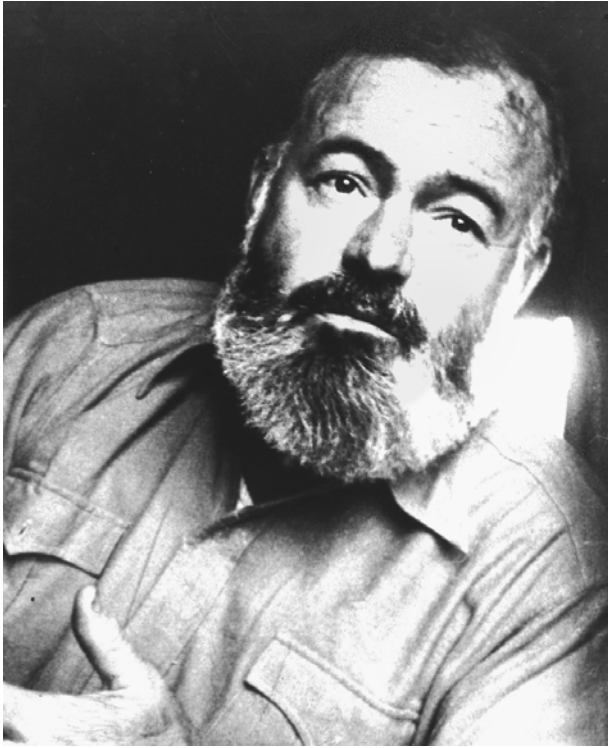
depicted in the short story "The Doctor and the Doctor's Wife," and his suicide several years later left the boy with an emotional scar.

Despite the intense pleasure Hemingway took from outdoor life and his popularity in high school—where he distinguished himself as a scholar and athlete—he ran away from home twice. However, his first real chance for escape came in 1917, when the United States entered World War I (1914–18; a war in which forces clashed for European control). Eager to serve his country in the war, he volunteered for active service in the infantry (foot soldiers) but was rejected because of eye trouble.

Hemingway then enlisted in the Red Cross medical service, driving an ambulance on the Italian front. He was badly wounded in the knee yet carried a wounded man on his back a considerable distance to the aid station. After having over two hundred shell fragments (parts of bullets) removed from his legs and body, Hemingway next enlisted in the Italian infantry, served on the Austrian front until the armistice (truce), and was decorated for bravery by the Italian government. Hemingway soon returned home where he was hailed as a hero.

### *Learning his trade*

Shortly after the war Hemingway worked as a foreign correspondent in the Near East for the *Toronto Star*. When he returned to Michigan he had already decided to commit himself to fiction writing. His excellent journalism and the publication in magazines of several experimental short stories had impressed the well-known author Sherwood Anderson (1876–1941), who, when Hemingway decided to return to



Ernest Hemingway.

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Europe, gave him letters of introduction to Gertrude Stein (1846–1946) and Ezra Pound (1885–1972)—two American writers living in Europe. Hemingway and his bride, Hadley Richardson, journeyed to Paris, where he learned much from these two well-known authors. Despite his lack of money and poor living conditions, these were the happiest years of Hemingway's life, as well as the most artistically productive.

In 1923 Hemingway published his first book, *Three Stories and Ten Poems*. The poems are insignificant, but the stories give strong indication of his emerging genius. With *In Our Time* (1925) Hemingway drew on his

experiences while summering in Michigan to depict the initiation into the world of pain and violence of young Nick Adams, a model for later Hemingway heroes.

### Major novels

Hemingway returned to the United States in 1926 with the manuscripts of two novels and several short stories. That May, Scribner's issued Hemingway's second novel, *The Sun Also Rises*. This novel, the major statement of the "lost generation," describes a group of Americans and Englishmen, all of whom have suffered physically and emotionally during the war.

In December 1929 *A Farewell to Arms* was published. This novel tells the story of a tragic love affair between an American soldier and an English nurse set against the backdrop of war and collapsing world order. It contains a philosophical expression of the Hemingway code that man is basically helpless in a violent age: "The world breaks everyone," reflects the main character, "and afterward many are strong in the broken places. But those that it will not break it kills. It kills the very good and the very gentle and the very brave impartially. If you are none of those you can be sure that it will kill you too, but there will be no special hurry."

Hemingway revealed his passionate interest in bull-fighting in *Death in the Afternoon* (1932), a humorous and unique nonfiction study. Hemingway's African safari in 1934 provided the material for another nonfiction work, *The Green Hills of Africa* (1935), as well as two of his finest short stories, "The Short Happy Life of Francis Macomber" and "The Snows of Kilimanjaro."

In 1940 Hemingway published *For Whom the Bell Tolls*, his most ambitious novel. A wonderfully clear narrative, it is written in less lyrical and more dramatic prose (non-poetry writing) than his earlier work.

### **World War II**

Following the critical and popular success of *For Whom the Bell Tolls*, Hemingway lapsed into a literary silence that lasted a full decade and was largely the result of his strenuous, frequently reckless, activities during World War II (1939–45; a war in which France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan). In 1942, as a *Collier's* correspondent with the Third Army, he witnessed some of the bloodiest battles in Europe. At this time he received the nickname of “Papa” from his admirers, both military and literary.

In 1944 while in London, Hemingway met and soon married Mary Welsh, a *Time* reporter. His three previous marriages—to Hadley Richardson, mother of one son; to Pauline Pfeiffer, mother of his second and third sons; and to Martha Gelhorn—had all ended in divorce. Following the war, Hemingway and his wife purchased a home, Finca Vigia, near Havana, Cuba.

### **Last Works**

In 1952 *The Old Man and the Sea* was published. A novella (short novel) about an extraordinary battle between a tired old Cuban fisherman and a giant marlin, it was immediately hailed as a masterpiece and was awarded the Pulitzer Prize in 1953. A year later, Hemingway won the Nobel Prize for Literature.

Hemingway's declining physical condition and increasingly severe mental problems

drastically reduced his literary output in the last years of his life. A journey to Africa planned by the author and his wife in 1954 ended in their plane crash over the Belgian Congo. Hemingway suffered severe burns and internal injuries from which he never fully recovered. Additional strain occurred when the revolutionary Cuban government of Fidel Castro (1926–) forced the Hemingways to leave Finca Vigia.

After only a few months in their new home in Ketchum, Idaho, Hemingway was admitted to the Mayo Clinic to be treated for hypertension (high blood pressure) and depression, and was later treated with electroshock therapy, a radical therapy where an electric current is sent through the body. Made bitter by an illness that humiliated him physically and impaired his writing, he killed himself with a shotgun on July 2, 1961.

Many of Hemingway's unpublished and unfinished works were published after his death. Because of his amazing body of work, and his intense approach to life, Hemingway was arguably one of the most influential American writers of the twentieth century.

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## JIMI HENDRIX

**Born:** November 27, 1942

Seattle, Washington

**Died:** September 18, 1970

London, England

*African American musician, songwriter,  
and guitarist*

Jimi Hendrix was one of the most original electric guitarists of all time, combining blues, hard rock, modern jazz, and soul into his own unmistakable sound. He was also a gifted songwriter.

### ***Raised by his father***

Jimi Hendrix was born Johnny Allen Hendrix in Seattle, Washington, on November 27, 1942, the son of Al Hendrix and Lucille Jeter. His father—a gifted jazz dancer who worked at a number of jobs, including landscape gardening—bore much of the responsibility of raising the boy and his brother, Leon, as did their grandmother and various family friends. This was due to the unreliability of Lucille, who drank excessively and who would disappear for extended periods. Al Hendrix changed his son's name to James Marshall Hendrix in 1946. Al and Lucille divorced in 1951; Al Hendrix won custody of his sons and exercised as much discipline as he could, but the boys—young Jimi especially—worshipped their absentee mother.

Jimi Hendrix wanted a guitar early on. Before acquiring his first real instrument, he “played” guitar on a broom and on a one-stringed ukulele. At last Al got his son a guitar, and the twelve-year-old Jimi began to teach himself to play. Jimi restrung the guitar upside down—as a left-hander, he was forced to turn the instrument in the opposite direction from how it is usually played, which left the strings at the bottom unless he rearranged them. He learned blues songs from records by greats like B. B. King (1925–) and Muddy Waters (1915–1983). The guitar rarely left Jimi's side, even as he slept. By his mid-teens, Hendrix had formed a band called the Rocking Kings. He played behind his back, between his legs, and over his head—as had many blues guitarists before him. Thus he became a favorite to audiences, if not to all musicians.

### ***Reputation grows***

After dropping out of Garfield High School in Seattle, Hendrix joined the army at age seventeen to avoid a jail sentence for riding in a stolen car. He volunteered as a paratrooper (a person who jumps from planes using a parachute) and was soon jumping out of airplanes. Eventually he sent for his guitar and continued playing whenever he could. He met another soldier, bass player Billy Cox, with whom he formed a band that entertained troops all over the region. After leaving the army, the two friends formed the King Kasuals and began playing regularly at a club in Nashville, Tennessee. Hendrix became known as the hottest guitarist in town. At the time he lacked confidence in his singing and was content to back other artists.

Over the next few years Hendrix toured with several different bands, often stealing

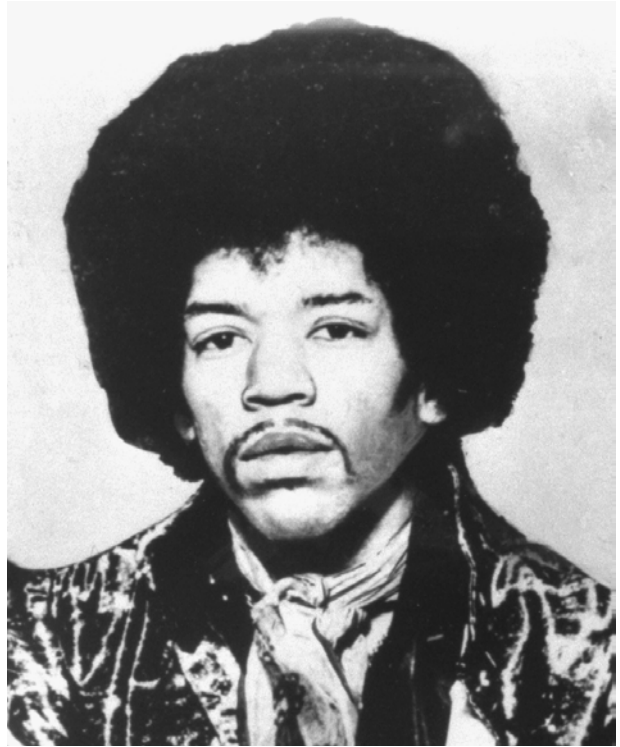


attention away from bandleaders who expected him to stay in the background. Hendrix's looks and on-stage behavior were influenced by the early rocker Little Richard (1932–). Hendrix played with the Isley Brothers, with saxophonist King Curtis, and later with friend Curtis Knight. In 1965 he signed a contract with Knight's manager, Ed Chalpin, receiving an advance of one dollar. He then formed his own group, Jimmy James & the Blue Flames, and moved to New York.

### *Jimi Hendrix Experience*

In September 1966 Hendrix was brought to London, England, by Chas Chandler, a member of the rock group the Animals who wanted to be a manager. Chandler suggested changing the spelling of Hendrix's first name to Jimi and helped him form the Jimi Hendrix Experience with bass player Noel Redding and drummer John "Mitch" Mitchell. Recording began the following month. By December the Experience had released its first hit single, "Hey Joe." Hendrix amazed even London's biggest rock stars with his electrifying stage show. He once said, "I sacrifice part of my soul every time I play."

The Experience's first album, *Are You Experienced?*, was a huge success. Back in the United States, crowds were stunned by Hendrix's performances, which included the burning of his guitar. The band's next album, *Axis: Bold as Love*, showed Hendrix's growth as a songwriter, but he was unhappy with the way it sounded. He was also becoming tired of audiences who expected a "wild man" act. Hendrix tried to expand his musical range on *Electric Ladyland*, an album he had complete control over, and that was the greatest achievement of his brief recording career.



*Jimi Hendrix.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

### *Management problems*

At this point Ed Chalpin sued Hendrix over his contract with the guitarist, causing problems for several years. Hendrix's managers decided to build Electric Ladyland Studios, hoping to save money on recording costs. To help pay for the studio, Hendrix was forced into endless touring, which caused the Experience to break up. Hendrix then formed Band of Gypsys with his old friend Cox and drummer Buddy Miles. In 1969 Hendrix's famous performance of the "Star-Spangled Banner" at the Woodstock festival in New York captured the anguish of the Vietnam War era (1957–75; a war in which

the United States aided South Vietnam in their ultimately unsuccessful efforts to stop a takeover by Communist North Vietnam).

Band of Gypsies recorded only a live album before drummer Miles left. Mitchell returned, and Hendrix began recording tracks for a new album, to be titled *First Rays of the New Rising Sun*. Before it was finished, Hendrix died of an overdose of sleeping pills on September 18, 1970.

Jimi Hendrix was elected to the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame in 1992. The following year he received the Grammy Awards Lifetime Achievement Award. Many rock, rap, and blues artists contributed versions of his songs to the 1993 tribute album *Stone Free*. In 1999 Al Hendrix published *My Son Jimi*, a biography of his son's family life.

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## HENRY VIII

**Born:** June 28, 1491  
Greenwich, England

**Died:** January 28, 1547

Westminster, England

*King of England*

Henry VIII was king of England from 1509 to 1547. He established the Church of England and strengthened the position of king. But much of Henry VIII's legacy lies in his string of marriages during a quest for a son who would one day take his throne.

### From boy to king

The second son of Henry VII (1457–1509), Henry VIII was born on June 28, 1491, at England's Greenwich Palace. As a child he studied Latin, Spanish, French, and Italian. He also studied mathematics, music, and theology (study of religion). Henry became an accomplished musician and played the lute, the organ, and the harpsichord. He also liked to hunt, wrestle, and joust (to fight on horseback). He also mastered the craft of archery.

Upon his father's death on April 21, 1509, Henry succeeded to a peaceful kingdom. He married Catherine of Aragon (1485–1536), widow of his brother Arthur, on June 11. Thirteen days later they were crowned at Westminster Abbey.

### Foreign policy

As king of England, Henry moved quickly on a pro-Spanish and anti-French policy. In 1511, together with Spain, Pope Julius II, and others, Henry formed an alliance called the Holy League, in an attempt to drive French king Louis XII out of Italy. Henry claimed the French crown and sent troops to invade France. The bulk of the work in preparing for the invasion fell to Thomas Wolsey

(c.1475–1530), who became Henry's trusted war minister. Henry's army won a great victory in France at Guinegate, and the capture of Tournai and Thérouanne.

Peace was made in 1514 with France as well as with the Scots, who invaded England and were defeated at Flodden (September 9, 1513). The marriage of Henry's sister, Mary, to Louis XII (1462–1515) sealed the French treaty. The marriage would secure a worthy alliance (partnership), but Henry longed for greater power. But not even the work of Wolsey, however, could win Henry the precious crown of the Holy Roman Empire. With deep disappointment he saw it bestowed in 1519 on Charles, the Spanish king. He tried to secure Wolsey's election as pope in 1523 but failed.

### *The search for a son*

In 1525 Catherine turned forty, fairly old for someone in the sixteenth century. Her seven pregnancies produced only one healthy child, Mary, born May 18, 1516. Afraid of not having a legitimate (legal) male heir, Henry believed Catherine's inability to give birth to a boy was a judgment from God. Soon, Henry began an affair with Anne Boleyn (c.1507–1536), a servant to Catherine.

A period of great social improvements known as the Reformation (1500s religious movement that affected the society, politics, and the economy) was stalled by Henry's negotiations to nullify (to make void) his marriage. While Catherine would not retire to a nunnery, Anne Boleyn demanded marriage—and the throne. A court sitting in June 1529 heard the case to nullify the marriage. It didn't work. He tried to secure Wolsey's election as pope in 1523 in hopes of using the



*Henry VIII.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

papacy (office of the pope) to nullify his marriage. This too failed and Henry removed Wolsey from office in 1527.

Henry's strategy to rid himself of his wife matured when Thomas Cromwell (c. 1455–1540) became a councilor and his chief minister. Cromwell forced the clergy (Church officials) to meet in 1531 and accept Henry's headship of the Church. This position would allow Henry to finally annul his marriage. Anne's pregnancy in January 1533 brought matters to a head. In a fever of activity Henry married her on January 25, 1533; secured papal approval in March; had a court declare his marriage to Catherine invalid in May; and waited for the

birth of a son. On September 7, 1533, Elizabeth was born. Henry was so disappointed that he did not attend her christening.

### *A third marriage*

Anne's attitude and moody temperament did not suit Henry, and her failure to produce a male heir worsened their relationship. She miscarried (a premature birth which results in the baby's death) a baby boy on January 27, 1536. It was a costly miscarriage, for Henry was already interested in another woman, Jane Seymour. Now determined on a second divorce, Henry brought charges of treason (high crimes against one's country) against Anne for alleged adultery (having affairs outside the marriage). Henry had her executed on May 19 and married Jane ten days later.

Jane brought a measure of comfort to Henry's personal life. She also produced a son and heir, Edward, on October 12, 1537. But Jane died twelve days later. Henry was deeply grieved, and he did not remarry for three years. He was not in good health and suffered from headaches, a painful leg problem, and blockage in his lungs which made him temporarily speechless.

### *War and marriage*

The course of diplomatic (political) events, particularly the fear that Spanish king Charles V (1500–1548) might attempt an invasion of England, led Henry to seek an alliance with the Protestant powers of Europe. To solidify this alliance, Henry married the Protestant princess Anne of Cleves on January 12, 1540. His realization that Charles did not intend to attack, coupled with his distaste for Anne, led to the annulment of his marriage to Anne on July 9, 1540.

Henry was soon introduced to the nineteen-year-old Catherine Howard. He married Catherine within three weeks of his annulment to Anne of Cleves and entered into the later years of his life. In 1542, Catherine was beheaded on charges of adultery. The same year, the Scottish war began as did plans for renewed hostilities with France. War with France began in 1543 and dragged on for three years, achieving a solitary triumph before Boulogne (1545).

Henry then married the twice-widowed Catherine Parr on July 12, 1543. Though she bore him no children, she made him happy. Her religious views were somewhat more radical than those of Henry, who had revised the conservative Six Articles (1539) with his own hand. During his last years he attempted to slow the radical religious tendencies which resulted from the formal break with Rome.

The king was unwell in late 1546 and early 1547, suffering from terrible fevers. Before he died on January 28, 1547, Henry reflected that "the mercy of Christ [is] able to pardon me all my sins, though they were greater than they be."

### *The legacy of Henry VIII*

Henry came to the throne with great gifts and high hopes. His relentless search for an heir led him into an accidental reformation of the Church not entirely to his liking. His desire to cut a figure on the European battlefields led him into costly wars.

Though personally interested in education, Henry sponsored no far-reaching educational policies. However, his interest in naval matters resulted in a larger navy and a well-developed naval administration. He brought

Wales more fully into union with the English by the Statute of Wales (1536) and made Ireland a kingdom (1542). The great innovations came out of the Reformation Statutes, not the least of which was the Act in Restraint of Appeals, in which England was declared an empire, and the Act of Supremacy, in which Henry became supreme head of the Anglican Church.

Henry ruled ruthlessly in a ruthless age. He was a king who wished to be succeeded by a son, and for this cause he bravely and rashly risked the anger of the other rulers in Europe. That he did what he did is a testament to his will, personal gifts, and good fortune.

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## PATRICK HENRY

**Born:** May 25, 1736

Studley, Virginia

**Died:** June 6, 1799

Red Hill, Virginia

*American revolutionary, orator, and lawyer*

Patrick Henry, American orator (public speaker) and lawyer, was a leader in Virginia politics for thirty years. He became famous for the forceful and intelligent way he spoke that persuaded people to believe in, and act upon, his beliefs. He used this gift to help bring about the American Revolution (1775–83).

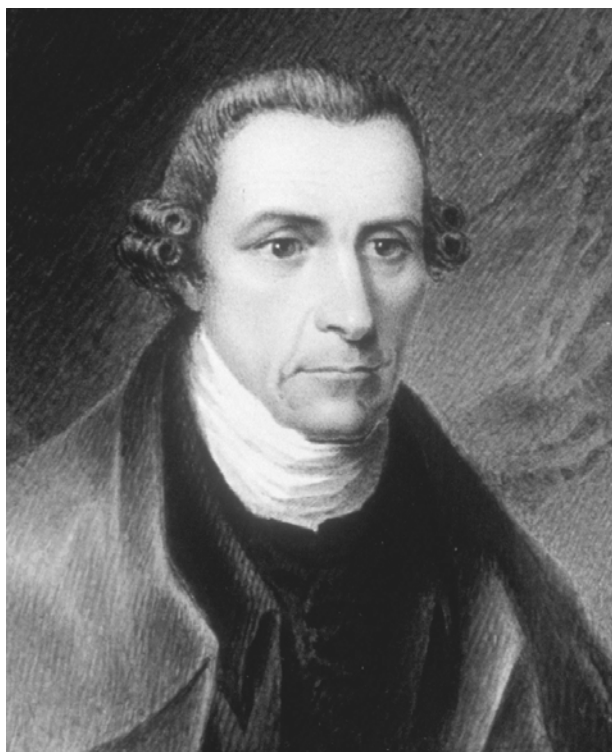
### **A slow start**

Patrick Henry was born in Hanover County, Virginia. He was the second son of John Henry, a successful Scottish-born planter, and Sarah Wynston Syme. He received most of his education from his father and his uncle. After his failed attempt as a storekeeper, he married Sarah Shelton and began a career as a farmer on land provided by his father-in-law.

Henry's farm days were cut short by a fire that destroyed his home. He and his growing family were forced to live above a tavern owned by his father-in-law. He earned money by working in the tavern. By 1760 Henry had decided to become a lawyer. He educated himself for about a year and then was admitted to the bar, an association for lawyers.

### **Eloquent patriot**

By 1763 Henry had realized two things: he wanted to help the common people, and he had a gift for public speaking. While defending the members of a church from a lawsuit filed against them by church officials, Henry criticized the church for pushing its members around. He also criticized the British government, claiming that it encouraged the church in its disrespectful behavior. These arguments made Henry very popular,



*Patrick Henry.*

*Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery.*

and his supporters carried him victoriously out of the courtroom.

Two years later, as a member of the House of Burgesses (the elective lawmaking body in the British colony of Virginia), he made a powerful speech against the Stamp Act. This law, passed by Britain in 1765, placed a tax on printed materials and business transactions in the American colonies. Henry also supported statements against the Stamp Act that were published throughout the Colonies and made him even more popular. For ten years Henry used his voice and wide support to lead the anti-British movement in the Virginia legislature.

### *The Revolution*

During the crisis caused by the Boston Tea Party (a 1773 protest against Britain in which Boston colonists disguised as Native Americans dumped three shiploads of British tea into the harbor), Henry was at the peak of his career. He traveled with George Washington (1732–1799) and others to Philadelphia as representatives from Virginia to the First Continental Congress. The First Continental Congress was a group of colonial representatives that met in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in 1774 to discuss their dissatisfaction with British rule. Henry urged the colonists to write in firm resistance toward Britain. “The distinctions between Virginians, Pennsylvanians, New Yorkers, and New Englanders are no more,” Henry said. “I am not a Virginian, but an American.”

Elected to the first Virginia Revolutionary Convention in March 1775, Henry made one of the most famous speeches in American history. Trying to gain support for measures to arm the colony, Henry declared that Britain, by passing dozens of overly strict measures, had proved that it was hostile toward the colonies. “We must fight!” Henry proclaimed. “Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it almighty God! I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!” The representatives were greatly affected by Henry’s powerful speech and Virginia rushed down the road to independence.

In 1775 Henry led a group of soldiers that forced the British to pay for gunpowder taken by British marines from an arsenal (a place where military weapons and equipment are made or stored) in Williamsburg, Vir-

ginia. He commanded the state's regular forces in Virginia for six months, but he eventually decided that he was not suited for a military role. At the Virginia Convention of May–July 1776, Henry supported the call for independence that led to the signing of the Declaration of Independence by Congress on July 4, 1776. In that same year, Henry was elected as the first governor of Virginia.

### *Devoted to Virginia*

In three terms as wartime governor (1776–79), Henry worked effectively to use Virginia's resources to support Congress and George Washington's army. He also promoted the expedition of George Rogers Clark (1752–1818); the expedition drove the British from the Northwest Territory. During the years Henry served as governor, the legislature passed reforms that changed Virginia from a royal colony into a self-governing republic.

Henry left his post as governor in 1778 after serving two one-year terms to focus on family matters. His first wife had died in 1775, leaving him six children. Two years later he married Dorothea Dandridge, who was half his age and came from a well-known family of Tidewater, Virginia. Beginning in 1778, Henry had eleven children by his second wife, and family life kept him distracted from public life.

Still, Henry continued to serve in the Virginia assembly, engaging in verbal battles with other public speakers and focusing on efforts to expand Virginia's trade, boundaries, and power. Henry also served two more terms as governor of Virginia (1784–86). He grew more and more opposed to a stronger central government and refused to be a repre-

sentative to the Constitutional Convention of 1787. He did not trust men like James Madison (1751–1836) from Virginia and Alexander Hamilton (1755–1804) from New York, fearing that they were too ambitious and too focused on the nation as a whole, overlooking the needs of individual states.

### *Peaceable citizen*

At the Virginia Convention of 1788, Henry began a dramatic debate with Madison and his supporters. He called upon all his powers of speech to warn the representatives of the dangers that he felt would be created by the new Constitution. He feared that federal tax collectors would threaten men working peacefully on their own farms and that the president would prove to be a worse tyrant (a ruler who has absolute control) than even King George III (1738–1820) of Britain. Henry also insisted that the new federal government would favor British creditors (persons to whom money or goods are owed) and bargain away American rights to use the Mississippi River. Despite Henry's arguments, the Federalists (a political party that believed in a strong central government) managed to win a narrow victory. Henry accepted their victory by announcing that he would be "a peaceable citizen." He had enough power in the legislature, however, to make sure that Virginia sent anti-Federalist senators to the first Congress.

Once Henry's influence over Virginia politics began to weaken, he retired from public life. He returned to his profitable law practice, earning huge fees from winning case after case before juries that were impressed by his powerful pleas. He also increased his real estate holdings, which made him one of the largest landowners in Virginia. Although

he was offered many appointments—as senator, as minister to Spain and to France, as chief justice of the Supreme Court, and as secretary of state—he refused them all. He was in poor health and preferred to stay home with his family. On June 6, 1799, Patrick Henry died of cancer at his plantation in Red Hill, Virginia.

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## AUDREY HEPBURN

**Born:** May 4, 1929

Brussels, Belgium

**Died:** January 20, 1993

Tolochenaz, Switzerland

*Belgian-born British/Swiss actress  
and humanitarian*

Audrey Hepburn was a popular movie actress who won an Academy Award in 1954 for her work in *Roman Holiday*. She also worked with the United Nations to improve the lives of the poor, especially children.

### **Her background**

Audrey Hepburn was born in Brussels, Belgium, on May 4, 1929, the daughter of J. A. Hepburn-Ruston and Baroness Ella van Heemstra. Her father, a banker, deserted the family when she was only eight years old. Hepburn was attending school in England when the Germans invaded Poland at the start of World War II (1939–45; a war fought mostly in Europe, with Germany, Italy, and Japan on one side and the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union on the other). England had promised to help Poland, which they did by declaring war on Germany. Hepburn's mother took her to live with relatives in Holland, thinking they would be safer there. The Germans soon invaded Holland, though, leading to the deaths of many of Hepburn's relatives and forcing her and her mother to struggle just to stay alive. Sometimes she had nothing to eat except flour. Still, as a young ballet dancer, she performed in shows to help raise money for the Dutch war effort.

### **Discovery and fame**

Hepburn and her mother moved to England after the war, and she continued to pursue her dance career. She was cast in bit parts on stage and in films in both Holland and England before being discovered in 1952 by the French novelist Colette (1873–1954) in Monte Carlo, Monaco. Colette insisted that



Hepburn play the lead role in the Broadway production of her novel *Gigi*. Although Hepburn's lack of experience was a problem at first, she improved steadily, and reviews of the show praised her performance. She also won a Theatre World Award for her work.

Hepburn's nationwide exposure in *Gigi* also brought her to Hollywood's attention. She was given a starring role in Paramount Studios' *Roman Holiday*. Costarring Gregory Peck (1916–), the 1953 film tells the tale of a runaway princess who is shown around Rome, Italy, by a reporter who falls in love with her. He then convinces her to resume her royal duties. The role landed Hepburn an Academy Award for best actress at the age of twenty-four.

Hepburn was now highly sought after. Director Billy Wilder (1906–2002) signed her up in 1954 for his new film, *Sabrina*. The movie was about a chauffeur's (someone who is paid to drive a wealthy person's car) daughter whose education in France makes her the toast of Long Island, New York, society. Hepburn costarred with William Holden (1918–1981) and Humphrey Bogart (1899–1957), who was her love interests in the film.

Hepburn went on to share the screen with all of the top leading men of her time: Cary Grant (1904–1986), Fred Astaire (1899–1987), Rex Harrison (1908–1990), Mel Ferrer (1917–) (whom she married in 1954 and divorced in 1968), and Sean Connery (1930–). In 1959 she made her first serious film, *The Nun's Story*. Hepburn and Albert Finney (1936–) were applauded for their strong acting. Of Hepburn's twenty-seven films, quite a few have become classics. She was nominated (her name was put forward for consideration) for three other Academy



Audrey Hepburn.

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Awards in addition to the one she won for *Roman Holiday*.

### **Works on behalf of children**

After 1967's spooky *Wait Until Dark*, in which she plays a blind woman being pursued by a killer, Hepburn stopped working for a while. Acting became secondary in her life, as she bore a child at age forty during her thirteen-year marriage to Italian physician Andrea Dotti. Hepburn chose to spend her time with her two sons and work for the international children's relief organization UNICEF. "If there was a cross between the salt of the earth and a regal queen," actress

Shirley MacLaine (1934–) told *People* magazine, “then she was it.”

Hepburn made only four more movies between 1976 and 1989. The last, *Always*, featured her in a brief role as an angel. Money was not an issue; besides her own income, Hepburn lived in Switzerland with Robert Wolders, the wealthy widower of actress Merle Oberon (1911–1979), for the last twelve years of her life. Hepburn continued her work for UNICEF and was named the organization’s goodwill ambassador (representative) in 1988. Hepburn worked in the field, nursing sick children and reporting on the suffering she witnessed. Hepburn traveled to Somalia in 1992, and her sad but hopeful account focused worldwide attention on the famine and warfare that would eventually kill thousands in that West African country.

Shortly before her death in January 1993, Audrey Hepburn was given the Screen Actors Guild award for lifetime achievement. Unable to accept in person, she asked actress Julia Roberts (1967–) to accept the honor in her place. While Hepburn’s acting was highly appreciated in her lifetime, she would probably rather be remembered as UNICEF’s hard-working fairy godmother.

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## KATHARINE HEPBURN

**Born:** May 12, 1907

**Hartford, Connecticut**

*American actress*

For over fifty years Katharine Hepburn was a successful actress on the stage and on the screen, delighting audiences with her energy, her grace, and her determination.

#### **Hepburn’s youth**

Katharine Hepburn was born on May 12, 1907, in Hartford, Connecticut. Reports of the year of her birth date differ, but the years most frequently cited are 1907 and 1909. In her autobiography (1991) Hepburn stated her birth date as 1907. She was one of six children (three of each gender) born to a socially prominent, well-to-do, activist family. Her mother was a well-known and passionate suffragette (supporter of women’s right to vote); her physician father was a creative pioneer in the field of sexual hygiene. Her youth was filled with physical activity. Her social conscience was developed early in her life—she and her siblings formed a neighborhood performing group, sending the proceeds from one production to benefit Navajo children in New Mexico.

Educated by private tutors and at exclusive schools, Hepburn entered Bryn Mawr College in Pennsylvania in 1924. Upon graduating four years later, she immediately embarked on a successful career in the theater. Her critical success as an Amazon queen in the satire *The Warrior’s Husband* led to a

contract with the film studio RKO. In 1932 she made her film debut in that company's *A Bill of Divorcement*, playing opposite John Barrymore (1882–1942). She received rave reviews for her performance and achieved stardom overnight.

### Screen career

Hepburn's screen career lasted for over fifty years and was based on a persona whose essentials included energy, grace, determination, trim athletic good looks, and obvious upper-class breeding (as indicated, among other things, by a clipped manner of speaking). This persona, when intelligently put to use by producers and directors, led her to four Academy Awards as "Best Actress" in the films: *Morning Glory* (1933); *Guess Who's Coming to Dinner* (1967); *The Lion in Winter* (1968); and *On Golden Pond* (1981). Hepburn also received an additional eight Oscar nominations over the years for the films: *Alice Adams* (1935); *The Philadelphia Story* (1940); *Woman of the Year* (1942); *The African Queen* (1951); *Summertime* (1955); *The Rainmaker* (1956); *Suddenly Last Summer* (1959); and *Long Day's Journey Into Night* (1962). Her role in the 1975 made-for-television film *Love Among the Ruins* won her an Emmy award.

Hepburn's career, however, was not without its setbacks, most notable of which occurred in the 1930s. A return to the Broadway stage in 1934 led to a role in a flop play, *The Lake*. In 1937 an important exhibitor placed an advertisement in a trade paper and described Hepburn, along with various other female stars, as "box office poison." RKO's indifferent response led Hepburn—at a cost to her of over \$200,000—to buy out her contract from the company. Shortly thereafter



Katharine Hepburn.

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she was rejected for the role of Scarlett O'Hara in the film version of *Gone with the Wind*. (1939).

Hepburn, determined to re-establish herself, returned to the Broadway stage, playing the lead in a successful production of *The Philadelphia Story*. Having invested in the production, she controlled the screen rights, which she ultimately sold to Metro Goldwyn Mayer (MGM) in return for a tidy profit and the studio's guarantee that she would play the lead in the film version. She did, and the film was a critical and a commercial success. Her Oscar nomination was but one demonstra-

tion of the dramatic way she had re-established herself in Hollywood, California.

### ***Hepburn and Tracy and other romantic interests***

Hepburn's next MGM film brought Spencer Tracy (1900–1967) into her life, with whom she began a relationship that lasted over two decades, until his death in 1967. Although separated from his wife, Tracy never divorced her. His romance with Hepburn was a quiet, tender, and private affair. In the 1960s Hepburn interrupted her career to care for the ailing Tracy. They were a team professionally as well as personally. They made nine films together over a period of twenty-five years, including: *Woman of the Year* (1942); *Keeper of the Flame* (1942); *Without Love* (1945); *Sea of Grass* (1947); *State of the Union* (1948); *Adam's Rib* (1949); *Pat and Mike* (1952); *The Desk Set* (1957); and *Guess Who's Coming to Dinner* (1967). Not all of these films were commercially or critically successful, but whether comedies or dramas, they were provocative and interesting, especially for their emphasis on the personal interaction between the sexes. Both Tracy and Hepburn played strong characters in these films, but neither was forced to give in to the other.

Hepburn had been married in 1928 to the social and well-to-do Ludlow Ogden Smith, who had changed his name to Ogden Ludlow because she did not want to be Kate Smith. The marriage actually lasted about three weeks before the couple separated, but they were not divorced until 1934. They remained friendly afterwards. Among her other romantic attachments in the 1930s was the well-known businessman and millionaire Howard Hughes (1905–1976).

### ***Later career***

Hepburn was not particularly lucky in her choice of work after the beginning of the 1970s. Except for a few notable exceptions, such as *On Golden Pond* (1981), the roles did not make good use of her considerable talents. Her television debut in 1972 as the mother in a version of Tennessee Williams' (1911–1983) moving *The Glass Menagerie* was not favorable. While apparently a great deal of fun for the stars on location, a pairing with the rugged action star John Wayne (1907–1979) in *Rooster Cogburn* (1975) proved to be lifeless. She had some success playing the noted French designer Coco Chanel (1883–1971) in a Broadway musical that opened in 1969; *Coco* had a long run but did not make impressive use of her capabilities. Several later Broadway undertakings proved to be failures.

Although Hepburn suffered some significant injuries in a 1985 automobile accident, and illnesses usual to one of her years, she golfed, cycled, and swam in the sea into her nineties. Katharine Hepburn provided some new perspectives on her personality and the roles she played on stage and screen in her autobiography, published after she retired from performance. In it she stressed the important influence of her intellectual family, and her continued closeness with her siblings and their children.

Katharine Hepburn never conformed to the traditional star image, but there is no doubt that she was a super star as an actress in movies, on stage, and on television. A strong-minded, independent woman, she has lived her life and her career to suit herself. In the process she has entertained, delighted, and aroused millions, and she has done so without compromising her beliefs.

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## HEROD THE GREAT

**Born:** 73 B.C.E.

**Died:** 4 B.C.E.

**Jericho, Judea**

*King of Judea*

**H**erod the Great, king of Judea, was an example of a class of princes who kept their thrones by balancing the delicate relations with the Roman Empire. Herod's much-criticized relationship with Rome would keep Judea safe and establish a Jewish state.

**Herod's rise to power**

Judea was ruled by high priests of the Hasmonean dynasty, descendants of the leaders who had freed the country from Seleucid rule. The Seleucid dynasty (312–64 B.C.E.) began with Seleucus I, who created an empire from part of the area of southwest Asia that had been controlled by Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.). Herod's grandfather and father held prominent political

offices in Judea and established close relations with the Romans, the unquestioned world power during that time.

In 47 B.C.E., when Roman Emperor Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) momentarily settled Palestinian affairs, he seems to have entrusted Herod's father, Antipater, with the effective civil government. Antipater named his eldest son, Phasael, governor of Jerusalem and his second son, Herod, governor of Galilee, where he won favor with the Romans by his success in dealing with hostile military groups.

In 46 B.C.E. Herod was appointed governor of Coele-Syria and Samaria by Caesar's representative. But with the death of Caesar and the arrival of the new emperor, Cassius (d. 42 B.C.E.), Herod quickly dismissed his loyalty to Caesar and won Cassius's favor. He also married Mariamne, a Hasmonean princess and granddaughter of the high priest Hyrcanus II.

A Parthian invasion in 40 B.C.E. brought another change: Antigonus, a rival Hasmonean, became king of Judea, and Herod had to flee. He left his family in the fortress of Masada and went to Rome. There, Roman leaders Antony (c. 81–30 B.C.E.) and Octavian (64 B.C.E.—14 C.E.), the future Augustus, accepted him, and the Senate named him king of Judea.

**Herod as king**

The Jews, of course, did not accept Rome's right to choose their king for them. Herod, with Roman help, had to conquer his own kingdom, which did not occur until 37 B.C.E. Antigonus and his chief followers were soon put to death, and Herod turned to the problem of the high priesthood, the most powerful religious office in Judea. Herod did



*Herod the Great.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

not have the correct ancestry to claim the office, and he needed a priest who could not rival him in power. But the Hasmoneans, even those connected to Herod by marriage, would not let go of their claims to the priesthood. By the end of this struggle, which raged for most of his reign, the priesthood had become only a temporary office held at the king's pleasure.

When Antony was killed, Herod found it relatively easy to shift his loyalty to Octavian. At the same time, Octavian saw no reason to look for another puppet to control in Judea and therefore stayed with Herod. Antony and

then Augustus supported Herod for a long time because he pursued a policy they thoroughly favored—bringing Judea into the Roman Empire. Herod consciously undertook to Hellenize (to copy the great culture of Greece) every aspect of life in his kingdom. Officials were given the titles and functions of royal ministers elsewhere, and non-Jews were given many of the highest posts.

Herod also brought his kingdom considerable prosperity. He stabilized the economy and reduced taxes. He encouraged trade and built the splendid port city of Caesarea. His city building had the further purpose of increasing Hellenization, for many of his cities, like Caesarea and Samaria (rebuilt and renamed Sebaste), were intentionally Hellenistic rather than Jewish, even to the extent of having a mostly non-Jewish population.

### *The end of power*

During nearly his whole reign, Herod faced trouble within his own family. As early as 29 B.C.E. he had killed his wife, Mariamne, out of jealousy. As the years went by, the whole matter was further complicated by the question of who would replace him on the throne. Like many people with a strong will to power, Herod could not face the idea of losing it. Three of Herod's sons were put to death, and his brother "escaped death only by dying." When Herod finally did die in 4 B.C.E., two other sons had some claim to the throne. Augustus finally settled the matter by splitting the inheritance between these two sons and a third one, and not allowing the title of king to any of them.

In an age when the existence of the smaller states depended not on their own

strength but on the will of Rome, Herod kept Judea safe, secure, and prosperous. And yet, throughout his career Herod suffered from being caught somewhere between Jew and Gentile (non-Jew). He began the rebuilding of the Temple and acted as protector and spokesman for various Jewish communities scattered about the world. But despite his wish to strengthen the Jewish state, he still sought the favor of Rome, and this conflict would prove his ultimate failure.

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## WILLIAM HERSCHEL

**Born:** November 15, 1738

Hanover, Germany

**Died:** August 25, 1822

Slough, England

*German-born English astronomer*

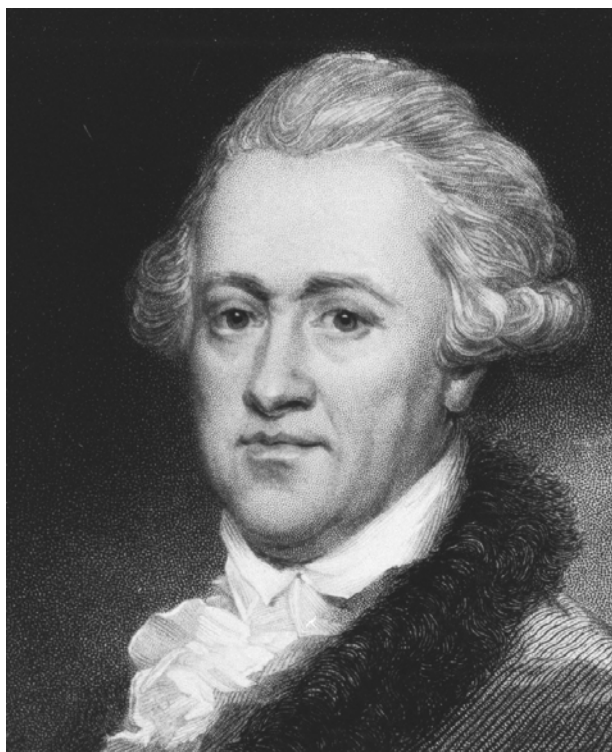
The German-born English astronomer (scientist who studies stars and planets) Sir William Herschel discovered the planet Uranus, the motion of the sun in space, and the form of the Milky Way.

### Early life

William (originally Friedrich Wilhelm) Herschel was born in Hanover, Germany, on November 15, 1738. His father, Isaac Herschel, was a musician in the Hanoverian guard, which William joined as an oboist (one who plays the oboe) at the age of fourteen.

After Herschel relocated with his brother to England in 1757, he conducted, copied, performed, and taught music to make his living. In Yorkshire he conducted a small military band, and from 1762 to 1766 he was a concert manager in Leeds, England. His notebook of 1766 has these entries: "Feb. 19. Wheatly. Observation of Venus" and "Feb. 24. Eclipse of the moon at 7 o'clock a.m. Kirby." These are the first signs of Herschel's future interests. By the end of 1766 he became organist at the fashionable spa town of Bath, England. In 1772 his sister, Caroline Lucretia Herschel, came to live with him at Bath. She worked with her brother on his studies of astronomy.

In 1773 there is a scientific entry of note in Herschel's notebooks: "April 19. Bought a quadrant [an instrument for measuring the height of an object in the sky] and Emerson's Trigonometry [the study of the properties of triangles]." That this entry marked the start of a new phase in his life is shown by the fact that it is followed by others of a similar nature: "Bought a book of astronomy . . . bought an object glass . . . bought many eye glasses . . . hire [rent] of a 2 feet reflecting tel-



William Herschel.

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

escape.” These entries show that he was proposing to make his first (metal) telescope mirror. Joined by his sister, Caroline, Herschel began constructing reflecting telescopes.

#### ***Herschel’s career in astronomy***

Obsessed with astronomy, Herschel progressed through cardboard and tin-tubed telescopes. When he tried to buy a much larger reflecting telescope in London, he could find nothing suitable or affordable. For this reason he began to build his own. By September 1774 he was observing the heavens with a Newtonian reflecting telescope with a 6-foot focal length of his own construction.

Meanwhile Herschel began to keep a record of what he saw in his observations from March 1, 1774. He observed the rings of Saturn, the moons of Jupiter, and the markings of the moon. In 1777 he began observations of a well-known but neglected star, Mira Ceti, which varies in brightness periodically. Soon he had the idea of determining the annual parallax of stars (the shift in what appears to be the positions of the stars as the earth goes around the sun). Whether the stars were so far away as to make this apparent movement unobservable was not then known. Herschel observed the compared positions of pairs of stars close together (called double stars). He measured hundreds of double stars, but in March 1778 he recorded his disappointment at finding “the stars in the tail of Ursa Major [the Big Dipper] just as I saw them three months ago, at least not visibly different.”

In recording double stars scientifically, on March 13, 1781, Herschel charted a pair of which “the lowest of the two is a curious either nebulous [body of space gas] star or perhaps a comet.” Four days later he looked for the object and found that it had moved. What he had discovered was the planet Uranus, as it is now known—the first planet to be discovered in historical times. Herschel was given the Copley Medal of the Royal Society and elected a fellow (member).

Herschel began writing, announcing his second great discovery, “Motion of the Solar System in Space”(1783). He carefully noted the proper motions of seven bright stars and showed that the movement in the intervening (time in between) time seemed to converge on a fixed point, which he interpreted correctly as the point from which the sun is retreating. Other discoveries followed,



including the first known map of the milky way's placement in the sky.

### **Later years**

In 1788 Herschel married Mary Pitt, a wealthy widow, by whom he had his only son. Herschel was able to make a useful additional income by selling telescopes, and he invested money in building machines to help grind mirrors.

Herschel was knighted (honored by the king for his value) in 1816 and received honors from countries and academies the world over. He died in Slough on August 25, 1822.

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## THOR HEYERDAHL

**Born:** October 6, 1914

**Larvik,** Norway

**Died:** April 18, 2002

**Colla Michari,** Italy

*Norwegian anthropologist, author, and explorer*

**N**orwegian anthropologist (scientist of human beings—their culture, numbers, characteristics, and rela-

tionships) Thor Heyerdahl popularized ideas about common links among ancient cultures worldwide. He was well known for his ocean journeys on primitive rafts and boats that were recorded in books, films, and television programs.

### **Early love of nature**

Thor Heyerdahl was born into an upper-class family in the coastal village of Larvik, Norway, in 1914. His father, Thor, was president of a brewery and a mineral water plant, and his mother, Alison Lyng Heyerdahl, was chairman of the Larvik Museum. His mother studied zoology (the branch of biology that studies animals), folk art, and primitive cultures. She influenced her son greatly. His father was an enthusiastic outdoorsman. By age seven young Thor had started his own animal museum, filled with specimens of seashells, butterflies, bats, lemmings, and hedgehogs. The collection was housed in an old outhouse at his father's brewery.

Heyerdahl and his parents spent summer holidays at a log cabin in the wilderness, where Thor made friends with a hermit (person choosing to live alone and away from society) and learned much about nature. By sled and ski he also went on many winter camping trips to remote locations with his schoolmates. Throughout his early life Heyerdahl was determined to live in a more primitive setting.

In 1933 Heyerdahl entered the University of Oslo, in Oslo, Norway, and specialized in zoology and geography. In Oslo he spent a lot of time at the home of a family friend, who had a huge library of Polynesian artifacts. With his girlfriend, Heyerdahl decided to



Thor Heyerdahl.

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quit college and make an expedition (a trip made for a specific reason) to the South Seas. His father agreed to finance the trip. Heyerdahl was married on Christmas Eve in 1936, and the next day the couple set out for the Marquesas Islands. Here Heyerdahl discovered evidence that Peruvian (from Peru) aboriginal (the original citizens of an area) voyagers had visited the islands. The inhabitants told him stories of Kon-tiki, a bearded, white sun king who arrived over the sea.

#### *Daring raft voyage*

In 1938 the Heyerdahls returned to Norway and settled in a mountain wilderness

near Lillehammer. Then Heyerdahl did research among American Indian tribes in British Columbia (Canada) in 1939 and 1940, trying to support his theory that two waves of migration (moving from one area to another) from the Americas—one from the northern hemisphere (half of the earth divided by the equator) and one from the south—had settled Polynesia.

Heyerdahl found little acceptance of his ideas in academic circles. He planned a dramatic experiment to convince his critics that a voyage by ancient peoples from Peru to Polynesia was possible. In 1947 he and a crew traveled to Peru on a balsa raft, which they named the Kon-Tiki. Heyerdahl detailed the journey in *The Kon-Tiki Expedition*. The book was translated into dozens of languages and sold more than twenty million copies. Heyerdahl's documentary (having to do with recording real events as they happen) movie of the voyage won him an Academy Award in 1951. But while the Kon-Tiki voyage captured public attention, it was not met with any scientific respect.

Heyerdahl was among a group of scientists who believed that ancient cultures had come from a common source through land and sea migrations. The opposing scientists thought that civilizations had cropped up around the world independently of one another. The second theory has remained the popular one. Still, as writer Thomas Morrow noted in *U.S. News & World Report*, Heyerdahl "has turned up a surprising amount of convincing evidence suggesting sea contacts among remote [distant] ancient cultures, for which he gets little credit."

#### *Explorations worldwide*

In 1953 Heyerdahl went to the Galapagos Islands, off the South American coast.

There he and his companions found evidence that original people of South America had visited the islands long before the Incan Empire. In 1955 Heyerdahl led an expedition to Easter Island, the remote Polynesian island where enormous stone statues of unknown origin had been discovered in 1722. His team found a carving of a reed ship at the base of one of the statues and much other evidence that at least three migrations from South America had populated the island, the earliest in the fourth century.

In 1969 Heyerdahl organized a new expedition. In Egypt he and his crew built a papyrus (a tall grass that grows near the Nile River) reed boat that they named *Ra*, after the Egyptian sun god. They sailed across the Atlantic, a voyage of 2,700 miles, but the boat broke apart 600 miles short of Barbados. The next year Heyerdahl sailed the *Ra II* all the way from Morocco to Barbados in fifty-seven days. His account of these expeditions is found in his book *The Ra Expeditions*. To Heyerdahl the voyages were evidence that Egyptians or other sailors could have crossed to the Americas several thousand years before Christopher Columbus (1451–1506).

### Later challenges

In 1977, at the age of sixty-two, Heyerdahl took up another challenge. He went to Iraq with a crew of eleven men and built a reed ship, the *Tigris*. They sailed it down the Tigris River, through the Persian Gulf, and across the Indian Ocean to the mouth of the Indus River in Pakistan, then westward to Djibouti at the mouth of the Red Sea on the eastern African coast. This 4,200-mile, five-month-long voyage was an attempt to show that the ancient civilizations of Egypt, the

Indus Valley, and Mesopotamia could have sprung from a single source. Political instability in the region brought an early end to this expedition.

In 1982 Heyerdahl and several archaeologists undertook an expedition to the remote Maldiv islands off the coast of India. There Heyerdahl was fascinated by stone statues that bore a striking resemblance to the monoliths (huge stone structures) of Easter Island. His discoveries led him to conclude that the Maldives also had been involved in prehistoric ocean trading and migration. Heyerdahl's 1986 book, *The Maldiv Mystery*, was hailed by some as a great detective story. It, too, was made into a film, as had his expeditions to the Galapagos and Easter Island.

Heyerdahl's voyages led him to become active internationally in fighting pollution of the oceans. In *Green was the Earth on the Seventh Day*, Heyerdahl wrote about how his voyage on the Kon-Tiki had increased his awareness of threats to the environment.

Thor Heyerdahl died in Colla Michari, Italy, on April 18, 2002. He is remembered as one of the best-known explorer-adventurers of modern times.

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## EDMUND HILLARY

**Born:** July 20, 1919

**Auckland, New Zealand**

*New Zealander explorer and mountaineer*

Edmund Hillary was one of the greatest explorers and mountaineers of the twentieth century. His conquest of Mount Everest and the South Pole inspired generations of adventurers and dreamers.

### **Early years in New Zealand**

Edmund Hillary was born in Auckland, New Zealand, on July 20, 1919. He spent his childhood in Tuakau, a rural area just south of Auckland where he went to the local primary school. Hillary was gifted with an active imagination and had a passion for reading adventure stories. Later he traveled daily to the city for secondary schooling, where he was a shy and awkward boy. As a child he helped in his father's beekeeping business and eventually quit school to work with his father full-time.

In 1935, during a ski weekend on a school trip to Mount Ruapehu, Hillary discovered his joy in the mountains and it never left him. He would often escape to the mountains to enjoy skiing and hiking, and he developed a love of climbing. A few years later he climbed his first mountain, the 7,500-foot Mount Oliver in New Zealand.

Hillary enlisted with the Royal New Zealand Air Force in World War II (1939–45), where New Zealand aided the Allied powers of America, England, and Russia in their war against the Axis powers of

Germany, Italy, and Japan. While serving as a navigator in the South Pacific, he was wounded in battle. Despite the physical setback, Hillary was determined to make a full recovery and resume mountain climbing.

### **Conquering Everest**

During the 1940s, Hillary made many climbs in New Zealand, particularly in the Southern Alps. He quickly became recognized for his daring, strength, and reliability. Then came climbs in Europe that brought the invitation to join Sir John Hunt's expedition to Mount Everest, in the Himalaya Mountains in Nepal. For two years, Hillary joined Hunt in the Scottish Highlands to prepare themselves for Everest. The highest point on Earth, Mount Everest measures 29,028 feet high, roughly six miles. No one in history had successfully completed the climb, and many lives were lost during attempts. Famed climbers George Mallory and Andrew Irvine came close before they disappeared somewhere near the mountain's peak.

In March 1953, Hillary and Hunt, along with twenty other of the best climbers in the world, gathered at Everest. Their company also included 350 Nepalese workers carrying 10,000 pounds of food and equipment, as well as thirty-six Sherpas, people who are familiar with the rugged terrain and are invaluable guides for climbers.

With the party's base camp just 1,100 feet from the summit, Hunt sent a two-man team the rest of the way. They failed but returned to camp with valuable information about how to attack the summit. Next, Hunt chose Hillary and Sherpa guide Tenzing Norgay (1914–1986) to make an attempt. After a heroic and death-defying climb, the two

reached the summit on May 29, 1953, becoming the first two people to reach the top of the world.

### *The South Pole and beyond*

After the Everest expedition, Hillary gained worldwide fame and a reputation as an adventurer. Vivian Fuchs, who later would be knighted, asked Hillary to become part of the Trans-Antarctic expedition in 1957 and 1958 that would cross the southern Atlantic Ocean to the South Pole. Hillary's job was to set up supply dumps from base camp towards the South Pole so that Fuchs's party could complete the crossing of Antarctica.

Hillary wanted to use the sophisticated Snow-Cats available to Fuchs, but he had to settle for Ferguson farm tractors for transport and hauling. When the last dump was established, Hillary made his own decision to head for the Pole, which he reached with his three tractors on January 4, 1958. He was the first person to travel there by land in forty-six years.

Through the 1960s and 1970s, Hillary continued to explore the Himalayas. He also led a renowned expedition by jet boat and on foot from the mouth of the Ganges River to its source. Like his other adventures, it was animated by his zest, good humor, and joy.

### *Adventurer to activist*

Although Hillary had achieved worldwide fame for his adventures, he never lost touch with the Nepalese people and devoted much of his time to their environmental and social causes. Hillary built hospitals and schools in the mountains of Nepal by raising the money, buying the materials, and working on many of the buildings.



*Edmund Hillary.*

*Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.*

Hillary also expressed social concerns in New Zealand by commenting on public issues. His observations were noted for their simplicity and good sense. He was president of Volunteer Service Abroad and patron of an Outdoor Pursuit Centre and of the Race Relations Council. He was also active in the Family Planning Association and in conservation campaigns. He was strongly opposed to nuclear tests and to ocean dumping in the South Pacific or elsewhere.

Hillary's achievements were recognized internationally with the award of numerous decorations and honorary degrees, beginning with his knighthood in 1953. They

reflect the rare warmth and respect in which he was held. In 1985 he was appointed New Zealand high commissioner to India. He was also honorary president for New York's Explorers Club.

In 1975 Hillary's wife and teenage daughter were killed in an airplane crash. He later remarried, and after leading one last expedition in 1977, he retired to his bee farm outside of Auckland.

### ***In retirement***

Hillary remains an important voice in the sport of mountain climbing, even in retirement. He wrote the forward for a book by Helen Thayer titled *Polar Dream* (1993). In 1996 he reacted to the death of eight mountain climbers in a storm on Mount Everest with the comment to *Time*'s David Van Biema, "I have a feeling that people have been getting just a little too casual about Mount Everest. This incident will bring them to regard it rather more seriously."

Hillary has also remained active in the region where he made his famous climb. The Sir Edmund Hillary Himalayan Trust provides funds and expertise to support reforestation, build schools and hospitals, and use technology such as solar power. He personally raised funds for the Nepalese people throughout the 1990s through public speaking engagements and lectures in the United States. In a 1995 interview with James Clash, Hillary said, "I think the most worthwhile things I've done have not been on the mountains or in the Antarctic, but doing projects with my friends, the Sherpa people. The twenty-seven schools we've now established, the hospitals—those are the things I would like to be remembered for."

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## S. E. HINTON

**Born:** 1950

**Tulsa, Oklahoma**

*American author*

Often considered the most successful novelist for the junior high and high school audience, S. E. Hinton is credited with creating realistic young adult literature. Her career began with the publication of her first book, *The Outsiders* (1967), at the age of seventeen.

### ***Childhood and teenage novelist***

Susan Eloise Hinton was born on July 22, 1950, in Tulsa, Oklahoma. Remarking that

there was little to do for a child growing up in Tulsa, Hinton turned to reading and writing at a very early age. The shy girl also had dreams of becoming a cattle rancher, until she abandoned this desire for a writing career.

As a teenager in Tulsa, Oklahoma, Hinton developed her love of literature but often found her options limited and boring. While she was a junior in high school, Hinton's father was diagnosed with cancer, a terrible and often fatal disease. To help her deal with her father's condition, Hinton turned to writing. During this time, Hinton completed a book she called *The Outsiders*.

### **Popularity of *The Outsiders***

Based on events that occurred in her high school in Tulsa, *The Outsiders* describes the rivalry between two gangs, the lower-middle-class "greasers" and the upper-class "socs" (for Socials), a conflict that leads to the deaths of members of both gangs. Narrated by fourteen-year-old Ponyboy, a sensitive, orphaned greaser who tells the story in retrospect (after the events occurred), *The Outsiders* explores the friendship, loyalty, and affection that lie behind the gang mystique while pointing out both the similarities in the feelings of the opposing groups and the uselessness of gang violence. Through his encounters with death, Ponyboy learns that he does not have to remain an outsider.

Initially regarded as controversial for its portrayal of rebellious youth, the novel is now recognized as a classic of juvenile literature as well as a unique accomplishment for so young a writer. *The Outsiders* was a major success among teenagers, selling more than four million copies in the United States alone. The book's popularity enabled Hinton to

attend the University of Tulsa, where in 1970 she earned an education degree and met her future husband, David Inhofe. However, gaining fame and fortune at eighteen was not without problems—Hinton had writer's block for several years.

### **Further novels**

Eventually, however, Hinton produced a second novel, *That Was Then, This Is Now* (1971), a tale of two foster brothers, Bryon and Mark, who are drifting apart. One becomes more involved in school and girlfriends, the other moves deeper into a career of crime and drugs. In *Rumble Fish* (1975),

Hinton continued to explore the themes of gang violence and growing up. In this story a bitter young man, in a struggle to acquire a tough reputation, gradually loses everything meaningful to him. Hinton's next book, *Tex* (1979), which follows two brothers left in each other's care by their rambling father, likewise investigates how delinquent youths try to make it in a world shaped by protest, drugs, violence, and family disruption.

### Movies

Hinton spent the ten-year interval between *Tex* and her next novel, *Taming the Star Runner* (1986), advising on the sets of several film adaptations of her books and starting a family. She also wrote the screenplay for the feature film version of *Rumble Fish* with director Francis Ford Coppola. In 1988 Hinton received the first Young Adult Services Division/School Library Journal Author Award from the American Library Association.

Hinton has not produced as much work as other young adult novelists, but that has not prevented her from becoming a consistent favorite with her audience. Two of the movies adapted from her books, *Tex* and *The Outsiders*, were filmed in response to suggestions from young readers.

Even though she is no longer a teenager involved in the world about which she writes, Hinton believes that she is suited to writing adolescent fiction: "I don't think I have a masterpiece in me, but I do know I'm writing well in the area I choose to write in," she commented to Dave Smith of the *Los Angeles Times*. "I understand kids and I really like them. And I have a very good memory. I remember exactly what it was like to be a teenager that nobody listened to or paid

attention to or wanted around. I mean, it wasn't like that with my own family, but I knew a lot of kids like that and hung around with them. . . . Somehow I always understood them. They were my type."

In 1995 Hinton published two books for younger readers, *Puppy Sister* and *Big David, Little David*, her first picture book. The intensely private Hinton lives in northern California with her husband and son, Nicholas David.

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## HIPPOCRATES

**Born:** c. 460 B.C.E.

**Cos, Greece**

**Died:** c. 377 B.C.E.

**Larissa, Greece**

*Greek physician*

**T**he ancient Greek physician Hippocrates is called the father of medicine. He changed the course of Greek medicine with his certainty that disease was not caused by gods or spirits but was the result of natural action.

### Early life

Hippocrates was born on the Aegean island of Cos, just off the Ionian coast near



Halicarnassus (island of Greece) during the end of the fifth century B.C.E. He is called Hippocrates Asclepiades, “descendant of (the doctor-god) Asclepius,” but it is uncertain whether this descent was by family or merely by his becoming attached to the medical profession. Legend likewise places him in the family line of the hero Hercules.

Son of Heracleides and Praxithea, Hippocrates’s family’s wealth permitted him to have a good educational beginning as a child. After nine years of physical education, reading, writing, spelling, music, singing, and poetry, he went to a secondary school, where he spent two years and had very thorough athletic training. It is likely that he went on to study medicine under his father in a form of apprenticeship (arrangement to learn a trade through work experience). This involved following his father and another doctor, Herodicos, from patient to patient and observing their treatment. It is believed that his training included traveling to the Greek mainland and possibly to Egypt and Libya to study medical practices.

### **Adult talents**

Hippocrates is credited with healing many, including the king of Macedonia whom he examined and helped to recover from tuberculosis (disease of the lungs). His commitment to healing was put to the test when he battled the plague (a bacteria-caused disease that spreads quickly and can cause death) for three years in Athens (430–427 B.C.E.). It is also clear that the height of his career was during the Peloponnesian War (431–404 B.C.E.).

His teaching was as well-remembered as his healing. A symbol of the many students he encouraged is the “Tree of Hippocrates,”

which shows students sitting under a tree listening to him. In time he apprenticed his own sons, Thessalus and Draco, in the practice of medicine. The teacher and doctor role combined well in 400 B.C.E., when he founded a school of medicine in Cos.

### **Hippocratic Corpus**

The body of writing attributed to Hippocrates, the *Hippocratic Corpus*, is a collection of roughly seventy works—the oldest surviving complete medical books. In ancient times some works in the *Hippocratic Corpus*, the first known edition of which are from the time of the emperor Hadrian (reigned C.E. 117–138), were recognized as having been written by persons other than Hippocrates. Modern scholars have no knowledge of his writing style to prove which of the works Hippocrates wrote. Nowhere in the *Hippocratic Corpus* is the entire Hippocratic set of guidelines found. Each subject was written with a particular reader in mind. Some books are directed toward the physician, some for the pharmacist, some for the professional physician, and some are directed more at the layman (person who is not an expert in the field).

In Hippocrates’s time doctors wrote treatises (written arguments) for the educated public, who in turn discussed medical problems with their doctors. The aim of these books was to teach the layman how to judge a physician—not to advise on self-treatment or even first aid in order to avoid seeing a doctor.

These medical treatises made up the *Hippocratic Corpus*. Modern readers can see that experimentation played its role in the Hippocratic view of medicine, because the individual approach to disease is nothing more than experimentation. It is obvious, too, that first-

hand experience played a part, since throughout the Corpus the plant ingredients of remedies are described by taste and odor. There are also instances of very basic laboratory-type experiments. *The Sacred Disease*, one treatise of the Hippocratic Corpus, describes dissections (the act of being separated into pieces) of animals, the results of which permitted comparisons to the human body to be drawn. Further, in their attempts to describe the body, the Hippocratics made use of external (outside) observation only. In *On Ancient Medicine* the internal organs are described as they can be seen or felt externally. It is most unlikely that dissection of the human body was practiced in the fifth century B.C.E.

Hippocrates favored the use of diet and exercise as cures but realized that some people, unable to follow such directions, would need medicine. His writings teach that physical handling could cure some physical troubles, like a dislocated hip, by the doctor moving it back into place. In *A Short History of Medicine* E. A. Ackerknecht summed it up: "For better or worse Hippocrates observed sick people, not diseases." This attitude is a timely solution to those who formerly insisted on the coldly scientific approach of the Hippocratic physician, who seemed to be so callous toward his patient.

Little is known of Hippocrates's death other than a range of date possibilities. Different sources give dates of either 374 B.C.E., the earliest date, or 350 B.C.E., the latest date. What lives on in modern medicine is his commitment to the treatment of disease.

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## HIROHITO

**Born:** April 29, 1901

**Tokyo, Japan**

**Died:** January 7, 1989

**Tokyo, Japan**

*Japanese emperor*

**H**irohito was the 124th emperor of Japan. He reigned during a period of internal unrest, foreign expansion, international war, and national defeat. As the occupant of Japan's throne for sixty-three years, he was the longest living ruler in modern history.

### **Childhood and education**

Hirohito was born on April 29, 1901. He was the first son of Crown Prince Yoshihito, who later became the Taisho emperor, and the grandson of Mutsuhito, the Meiji emperor. Following long-established custom, Hirohito was separated from his parents shortly after birth. He was cared for by a vice admiral in the imperial (of the empire) navy until November 1904, when he returned to the Akasaka Palace, his parents' official residence. Even after his return to the palace, he was only allowed to see his mother once a week and hardly ever spent time with his father.

From early on, Hirohito was trained to act with the dignity, reserve, and sense of responsibility his future role would require and he grew into a shy and serious young boy. In April 1908 he was enrolled at the Gakushuin (Peers School) in a special class of twelve boys. The head of the school was General Maresuke Nogi, a celebrated soldier of the Russo-Japanese War (1904–05; a conflict with Russia over Manchuria and Korea). He took a personal interest in the education of the young prince and attempted to introduce him to respect the virtues of hard work, the importance of devotion to the nation, and the practice of stoicism (the ability to ignore pleasure or pain).

In 1912 Mutsushito died and paved the way for Hirohito's father Yoshihito to take the throne. Hirohito then began an intense study of natural history. Under the guidance of his natural history tutor, he developed an interest in marine biology, a field in which he became an acknowledged expert.

### ***Crown prince***

On February 4, 1918, Hirohito became engaged to Princess Nagako, daughter of Prince Kuniyoshi Kuniinomiya. The imperial wedding finally took place on January 26, 1924. The imperial couple later had five daughters, the first born in December 1926, and two sons, the first born in December 1933.

In March 1921 Hirohito, accompanied by a large group of attendants, set off for a tour of Europe. Never before had a crown prince of Japan visited countries abroad. Although Hirohito traveled in France, the Netherlands, and Italy, his visit to England made the deepest impression on him. He was attracted by the freedom and informality (without ceremony) of the English royal family.



*Hirohito.*

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On November 25, 1921, shortly after his return to Japan, Hirohito was appointed to serve as regent (acting ruler) for his father, who had begun to show increasing signs of mental instability. In December 1923 Hirohito escaped an attempt on his life by a young radical.

### ***Emperor of a restless nation***

Hirohito took the throne on December 25, 1926. He took as his reign name Showa ("Enlightened Peace"), and he was formally known as Showa Tenno. However, the choice of reign name would not hold true. Shortly after Hirohito became emperor, Japan's relations with the outside world began to fall apart.

In 1927 Japanese army officers, without the agreement of Emperor Hirohito, sparked conflict with Manchuria and later occupied parts of that country. Hirohito soon found his military deeply involved on the Asian mainland.

The Manchurian incident ushered in a period of serious unrest within Japan. Young military officers plotted a series of unsuccessful takeovers as well as a number of successful assassinations (secretly planned murders). They hoped to overthrow parts of the government in order to establish a military regime that could govern in the name of “direct imperial rule.” In other words, Hirohito would still be called emperor and would be the head of the government, but the military would actually be in control. Hirohito, however, saw himself as part of the state rather than a sole ruler and believed that the leaders of government should be men of moderation and nonmilitaristic in outlook.

During the military revolt of February 26, 1936, elements of the First Division occupied large areas of downtown Tokyo, and assassination bands murdered many leading public officials. Emperor Hirohito urged swift end to the revolt and punished those involved. The uprising was crushed, and a number of ranking generals who were thought to have encouraged the rebels were forced into retirement.

### ***Road to war***

Nevertheless the country continued to drift toward war. In July 1937 hostilities with China broke out. During the late 1930s Hirohito's advisers in the palace urged him to stay away from direct involvement in politics or be forced to compromise the position of the imperial family. The emperor followed this

advice, and agreed to whatever policies the governments decided upon.

There is every evidence that the emperor felt uneasy about the unfolding of events, particularly after 1940. He did not favor the alliance with Germany and Italy in World War II (1939–45), but he made no effort to oppose it. Similarly, he had grown distrustful of the judgments of the military leaders who kept assuring him of a quick end to the war in China. But when the final decision on war with the United States was made on September 6, 1941, he barely opposed it.

During the war Hirohito refused to leave the imperial palace at Tokyo, even after air raids began to demolish the city and fires destroyed many buildings on the palace grounds. He wished to share the hardships of his subjects.

### ***Japan defeated***

By the summer of 1945 it was clear that defeat was at hand. But the decision to surrender did not come until after atomic bombs were dropped on the Japanese towns of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. At a historic imperial conference on August 9, 1945, the emperor made clear his opinion in favor of surrendering to the allied powers led by the United States.

Following Japan's formal surrender in September 1945, there was much discussion about whether Emperor Hirohito should be punished as a war criminal. Hirohito himself frequently expressed his willingness to step down as a token of his responsibility for the war. But the U.S. authorities, including General Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964), decided that it would better serve the goals of Japanese stability to let him remain as ruler. On January 1,

1946, however, the emperor once and for all gave up any claims to being a sacred ruler by issuing a law that denied his god-like status as a descendant of the sun goddess.

### ***Emperor's life as a mortal***

During the years of the occupation and afterward, every effort was made to “democratize” the throne by having the emperor mingle with the people. Even though he was personally distant and somewhat awkward in public, the emperor nevertheless became a popular figure. Pictures of the imperial family and stories of their activities became a steady part of weekly magazine and newspaper copy.

A respected marine biologist with a number of books on that subject to his credit, Emperor Hirohito lived a modest, sober, and retired life when not involved in official functions. In 1972 he traveled to Europe and was met with hostile demonstrations. A 1975 trip to the United States resulted in a more friendly reception. Hirohito died on January 7, 1989, at the age of eighty-seven. Symbolic of his interest in science and in modernizing his country, Hirohito reportedly was buried with his microscope and a Mickey Mouse watch.

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## ALFRED HITCHCOCK

**Born:** August 13, 1899

**London, England**

**Died:** April 29, 1980

**Los Angeles, California**

*English film director*

Alfred Hitchcock was a film director famous for well-made suspense thrillers such as *Strangers on a Train*, *Rear Window*, and *Psycho*. He was interested in showing the terror in everyday situations.

### ***Early life and education***

Alfred Hitchcock was born in London, England, on August 13, 1899, the youngest of William and Emma Whalen Hitchcock's three children. His father was a poultry salesman and an importer of fruit. Hitchcock was generally a quiet child; however, at five years old his father arranged to have him locked in a cell at the local police station for five minutes after he misbehaved. Hitchcock developed a lifelong interest in the subject of guilt, which was further developed during his time at the strict St. Ignatius College. He also attended the University of London, planning to pursue a career in electrical engineering. After leaving the university he worked with a telegraph company and in advertising.

Hitchcock soon became interested in motion picture production and found a job



Alfred Hitchcock.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

as a title card writer with the British division of the Famous Players-Lasky Company, which later became Paramount Pictures. In 1923 he began writing scenes for the Gainsborough Film Studios. Hitchcock's first film as a director was *The Pleasure Garden*, which was filmed in Germany. His other early films included *The Lodger* (1925), an exciting treatment of the Jack the Ripper story, and *Blackmail* (1930), the first British picture with sound. Some think that Hitchcock's next films, *The Man Who Knew Too Much* (1934) and *The Thirty-Nine Steps* (1935), were responsible for the revival in British movie making during the early 1930s.

### *Goes Hollywood*

In 1939 Hitchcock left England with his wife and daughter to settle in Hollywood, California. For the most part his American films of the 1940s were expensively produced and entertaining. These included *Rebecca* (1940), based on a best-selling suspense novel; *Suspicion* (1941), about a woman who believes her husband is a murderer; *Lifeboat* (1944), a study of survival on the open seas; and *Spellbound* (1945), a murder mystery. Less ambitious but more accomplished was *Notorious* (1946). Hitchcock's first ten years in Hollywood ended with two interesting failures: *The Paradine Case* (1947) and *Rope* (1948).

Beginning with the unusual *Strangers on a Train* (1951), Hitchcock directed a series of films that placed him among the great artists of modern film. His most important films during that time were *I Confess* (1953), *Rear Window* (1954), *To Catch a Thief* (1955), *The Trouble with Harry* (1956), *The Man Who Knew Too Much* (1956), *Vertigo* (1958), and *North by Northwest* (1959). Many of Hitchcock's films deal with the theme of an ordinary person caught up in situations beyond his or her control. Hitchcock himself also made a brief appearance (or "cameo") in one scene in each of his films.

### *Later years*

*Psycho* (1960) was Hitchcock's most terrifying and controversial (causing dispute) film, and its most famous scene made an entire generation of moviegoers nervous about taking a shower. *The Birds* (1963), *Marnie* (1964), and *Family Plot* (1976) were Hitchcock's final and less brilliant films. Hitchcock also expanded his directing career into American television, with a series that featured mini-thrillers (1955–65). Because of failing

health, he retired from directing after *Family Plot*. He was knighted in 1979 and died soon afterward in Los Angeles on April 29, 1980.

Hitchcock's films enjoyed new popularity in the 1990s. After a restored version of *Vertigo* was released in 1996 and was surprisingly successful, plans were made to re-release other films, such as *Strangers on a Train*. According to *Entertainment Weekly*, as of 1997 plans were underway to remake as many as half a dozen Hitchcock films with new casts, an idea that met with mixed responses from Hitchcock fans.

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## ADOLF HITLER

**Born:** April 20, 1889

**Braunau, Austria**

**Died:** April 30, 1945

**Berlin, Germany**

*German dictator and nationalist*

The German dictator Adolf Hitler led the extreme nationalist and racist Nazi party and served as chancellor-president of Germany from 1933 to 1945. Arguably one of the most effective and powerful leaders of the twentieth century, his leadership led to the deaths of nearly six million Jews.

### Early life

Adolf Hitler was born on April 20, 1889, in the small Austrian town of Braunau on the Inn River along the Bavarian-German border. The son of an extremely strong-willed Austrian customs official, his early youth seems to have been controlled by his father until his death in 1903. Adolf soon became rebellious and began failing at school. He finally left formal education altogether in 1905 and began his long years of aimless existence, reading, painting, wandering in the woods, and dreaming of becoming a famous artist. In 1907, when his mother died, he moved to Vienna in an attempt to enroll in the famed Academy of Fine Arts. His failure to gain admission that year and the next led him into a period of deep depression as he drifted away from his friends.

It was during this time of feeling rootless that Hitler first became fascinated by the immense potential of mass political manipulation (control). He was particularly impressed by the successes of the anti-Semitic, or anti-Jewish, nationalist Christian-Socialist party of Vienna Mayor Karl Lueger (1844–1910). Lueger's party efficiently used propaganda (spreading a message through literature and the media) and mass organization. Hitler began to develop the extreme anti-Semitism and racial mythology that were

to remain central to his own “ideology” and that of the Nazi party.

In May 1913, Hitler returned to Munich, and after the outbreak of World War I (1914–18) a year later, he volunteered for action in the German army in their war against other European powers and America. During the war he fought on Germany's Western front with distinction but gained no promotion (advancement) beyond the rank of corporal (a low-ranking military officer). Injured twice, he won several awards for bravery, among them the highly respected Iron Cross First Class.

### **Early Nazi years**

The end of the war left Hitler without a place or goal and drove him to join the many veterans who continued to fight in the streets of Germany. In the spring of 1919, he found employment as a political officer in the army in Munich with the help of an adventurer-soldier by the name of Ernst Roehm (1887–1934)—later head of Hitler's elite soldiers, the storm troopers (SA). In this capacity Hitler attended a meeting of the so-called German Workers' party, a nationalist, anti-Semitic, and socialist group, in September 1919. He quickly distinguished himself as this party's most popular and impressive speaker and propagandist, and he helped to increase its membership dramatically to some six thousand by 1921. In April of that year he became Führer (leader) of the renamed National Socialist German Workers' party (NSDAP), the official name of the Nazi party.

The poor economic conditions of the following years contributed to the rapid growth of the party. By the end of 1923, Hitler could count on a following of some fifty-six thousand

members and many more sympathizers, and regarded himself as a strong force in Bavarian and German politics. Hitler hoped to use the crisis conditions to stage his own overthrow of the Berlin government. For this purpose he staged the Nazi Beer Hall Putsch of November 8–9, 1923, by which he hoped to force the conservative-nationalist Bavarian government to cooperate with him in a “March on Berlin.” The attempt failed, however. Hitler was tried for treason (high crimes against one's country) and given the rather mild sentence of a year's imprisonment in the old fort of Landsberg.

It was during this prison term that many of Hitler's basic ideas of political strategy and tactics matured. Here he outlined his major plans and beliefs in *Mein Kampf*, which he dictated to his loyal confidant Rudolf Hess (1894–1987). He planned the reorganization of his party, which had been outlawed and had lost much of its appeal. After his release, Hitler reconstituted the party around a group of loyal followers who were to remain the center of the Nazi movement and state.

### **Rise to power**

With the outbreak of world depression in the 1930s, the fortunes of Hitler's movement rose rapidly. In the elections of September 1930, the Nazis polled almost 6.5 million votes, and the party had gained undeniable popularity in Germany. In November 1932, President Hindenburg (1847–1934) reluctantly called Hitler to the chancellorship to head a coalition government of Nazis, conservative German nationalists, and several prominent independents.

The first two years in office were almost wholly dedicated to balancing power. With several important Nazis in key positions and



Hitler's military ally Werner von Blomberg in the Defense Ministry, he quickly gained practical control. Hitler rapidly eliminated his political rivals and brought all levels of government and major political institutions under his control. The death of President Hindenburg in August 1934 cleared the way for Hitler to remove the title of president. By doing this, Hitler officially became Führer (all-powerful ruler) of Germany and thereby head of state, as well as commander in chief of the armed forces. Joseph Goebbels's (1897–1945) extensive propaganda machine and Heinrich Himmler's (1900–1945) police system perfected the complete control of Germany. Likewise, Hitler's rule was demonstrated most impressively in the great Nazi mass rally of 1934 in Nuremberg, Germany, where millions marched in unison and saluted Hitler's theatrical appeals.

### *Preparation for war*

Once internal control was assured, Hitler began mobilizing Germany's resources for military conquest and racial domination of central and eastern Europe. He put Germany's six million unemployed to work to prepare the nation for war. Hitler's propaganda mercilessly attacked the Jews, whom Hitler associated with all internal and external problems in Germany. Most horrifying was Hitler's installment of the "final solution" of imprisoning and eventually destroying all Jewish men, women, and children in Himmler's concentration camps.

Foreign relations were similarly directed toward preparation for war. The improvement of Germany's military position and the acquisition of strong allies set the stage for world war. To Germany he annexed, or



*Adolf Hitler.*

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added, Austria and the German-speaking Sudetenland of Czechoslovakia, only to occupy all of Czechoslovakia early in 1939. Finally, through threats and promises of territory, Hitler was able to gain the neutrality of the Soviet Union, the former nation that was made up of Russia and other smaller states. Alliances with Italy and Japan followed.

### *The war*

On September 1, 1939, Hitler began World War II with his quest to control Europe. The sudden invasion of Poland was immediately followed by the destroying of Jews and the Polish elite, and the beginnings

of German colonization. Following the declaration of war by France and England, Hitler temporarily turned his military machine west, where the light, mobile attacks of the German forces quickly triumphed. In April 1940, Denmark surrendered, soon followed by Norway. In May and June the rapidly advancing tank forces defeated France and the Low Countries. In the Air Battle of Britain, England sustained heavy damage, but held out after German naval operations collapsed.

The major goal of Hitler's conquest lay in the East. On June 22, 1941, the German army advanced on Russia in the so-called Operation Barbarossa, which Hitler regarded as Germany's final struggle for existence and "living space" (*Lebensraum*) and for the creation of the "new order" of German racial domination. However, after initial rapid advances, the German troops were stopped by the severe Russian winter and failed to reach any of their three major goals: Leningrad, Moscow, and Stalingrad. The following year's advances were again slower than expected, and with the first major setback at Stalingrad (1943), the long retreat from Russia began. A year later, the Western Allied forces of America, England, and Russia started advancing on Germany.

### **German defeat**

With the German war effort collapsing, Hitler withdrew almost entirely from the public. His orders became increasingly erratic (different from what is normal or expected), and he refused to listen to advice from his military counselors. He dreamed of miracle bombs and suspected betrayal everywhere. Under the slogan of "total victory or total ruin," the entire German nation from young boys to old men, often barely

equipped or trained, was mobilized and sent to the front. After an unsuccessful assassination attempt on July 20, 1944, by a group of former leading politicians and military men, Hitler's reign of terror further tightened.

In the last days of the Nazi rule, with the Russian troops in the suburbs of Berlin, Hitler entered into a last stage of desperation in his underground bunker in Berlin. He ordered Germany destroyed, believing it was not worthy of him. He expelled his trusted lieutenants Heinrich Himmler and Hermann Göring (1893–1946) from the party and made a last, theatrical appeal to the German nation. Adolf Hitler committed suicide on April 30, 1945, leaving behind a legacy of evil and terror unequaled by any leader in the modern world.

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HO  
CHI MINH

**Born:** May 19, 1890  
**Nghe An, Vietnam**

**Died:** September 3, 1969

**Hanoi, Vietnam**

*Vietnamese revolutionary and president*

**H**o Chi Minh was the founder and first leader of the Vietnamese Communist Party. He led the movement for Vietnamese independence and unity through struggles with France and the United States. He also served as president of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam from 1945 until his death in 1969.

### **Early life**

Ho Chi Minh was born Nguyen Sinh Cung on May 19, 1890, in Nghe An province in central Vietnam. Nghe An had been the center of resistance to the thousand-year Chinese control of Vietnam from 111 B.C.E. to 939 C.E. and the Ming Dynasty in the fifteenth century. Many of the leaders of the opposition to French control in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries also came from the province. Ho's father, Nguyen Sinh Huy, educated himself to pass the civil service exam and worked for the government. He eventually resigned in protest against French involvement in Vietnamese affairs. When Ho was ten years old, his mother died while giving birth. Ho had two older siblings, a sister named Thanh and a brother named Khiem.

Ho's opposition to colonialism (the rule of an area and its people by another country) began at the age of nine, when he worked as a messenger for an anticolonial organization. His father also introduced him to several revolutionaries. Ho went on to attend the National Academy in Hué, Vietnam. Dismissed from the academy after taking part in

protests against the French in 1908, he traveled to southern Vietnam in 1909 and worked briefly as a schoolteacher. Ho signed on as a cook with a French steamship company in 1911. At sea for two years, he visited ports in Europe, Africa, and the United States and began to develop his language skills, eventually learning Chinese, French, Russian, English, and Thai in addition to his native Vietnamese.

### **Committed to communism**

During World War I (1914–18), Ho worked in London, England, and Paris, France. This is when his lifelong commitment to communism and Vietnamese independence began. Communism refers to a system in which the means of production (such as land, factories, and mines) are owned by the people as a whole rather than by individuals. Communists believe that such a system can be achieved only by revolution and government by a single party. In Paris, Ho adopted the name Nguyen Ai Quoc (Nguyen the Patriot) and attracted attention when he presented a written request to the Versailles Peace Conference demanding independence for Vietnam. Ho became a founding member of the French Communist Party in 1920. From 1920 to 1923, he was an outspoken leader of the Vietnamese community in Paris, participating in the Intercolonial Union formed under Communist sponsorship and publishing two anticolonial journals.

Ho was invited to Moscow, Russia, in 1923, where he studied at the University of Oriental Workers. In 1925 he was sent to China to organize a communist movement. He formed the Thanh Nien (Vietnamese Revolutionary Youth League), whose members



*Ho Chi Minh.*

*Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.*

were mostly Vietnamese students in the southern Chinese port city of Canton. The league called for independence, redistribution of land, fair taxation, and equal rights for men and women. In 1927 Ho was forced to leave Canton after a Chinese government crackdown on local communists. During his absence, the league began to split into different factions, or groups. Ho returned to South China in early 1930 to unite the factions as a formal Communist Party, drawing its members from Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos. He continued his organizing in Hong Kong and Shanghai but was arrested by the British in 1931 and imprisoned for two years. Released

in 1933, he spent the next several years in the Soviet Union.

## ***Return to Vietnam***

In 1940 Ho returned to South China and met with members of the Indochinese Communist Party (ICP). The following May, with most of Vietnam under Japanese occupation, he chaired a meeting of the party's Central Committee inside the Vietnamese border, marking his first return to Vietnam in thirty years. Ho and the ICP then announced the formation of the Viet Minh (League for Vietnamese Independence), an organization demanding independence from French rule and Japanese military occupation. From 1941 to 1945, although imprisoned again in China for more than a year, Ho led the ICP in seeking support for the Viet Minh, forming alliances with American diplomats and intelligence officers in South China, helping victims of a famine that killed over two million people in north and central Vietnam from 1943 to 1944, and building up the party's military forces.

In August 1945 Viet Minh forces attempted to seize power in Vietnam. On September 2, 1945, Ho Chi Minh, as president of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam, stood before thousands of supporters in the city of Hanoi. He proclaimed "that Vietnam has the right to be a free and independent country—and in fact is so already." At the end of World War II (1939–45), the French tried to regain control of Vietnam. Although Ho reached a settlement agreement with the French in March 1946, calling for the creation of a Vietnamese "free state" within the French Union, the French changed their minds. In December, war broke out between

Vietnamese and French forces. By 1954 the French had tired of war and sought a settlement at the Geneva Conference. In July an agreement was reached calling for a truce and division of Vietnam into a Communist north and a non-Communist south.

### **Later years**

After 1954 Ho Chi Minh remained president of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam and chairman of the Communist Party but slowly turned over day-to-day responsibilities to others. Ho was active internationally, where he promoted Vietnamese interests within other countries and attempted to prevent a split between the Soviet Union and China. A land reform campaign from 1954 to 1956 was a major failure. Modeled on land redistribution plans developed by Chinese Communists, the reforms were very unpopular among Vietnamese peasants, some five thousand of whom were killed by Ho's government in its determination to make the plan work.

Ho also oversaw the formation of the National Liberation Front (NLF) in 1960, a movement of resistance against the non-Communist government in southern Vietnam. Clashes between that government and the NLF led the United States military to step in on the side of the South Vietnamese. As the American military commitment increased, with the arrival of American ground troops and the beginning of a heavy bombing campaign against northern Vietnam in 1965, Ho sought to maintain good relations with the Soviet Union and China in order to obtain military assistance and supplies from both Communist powers.

Beginning in the mid-1960s, Ho Chi Minh's health declined, and he made only

occasional public appearances. He never married, but he was widely viewed in North Vietnam as the father of his country and often referred to in his later years as Bac (Uncle) Ho. He died of a heart attack on September 3, 1969, almost six years before the U.S.-backed South Vietnamese government was defeated and Vietnam was unified. The city of Saigon was renamed Ho Chi Minh City in his honor.

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## THOMAS HOBBS

**Born:** April 5, 1588

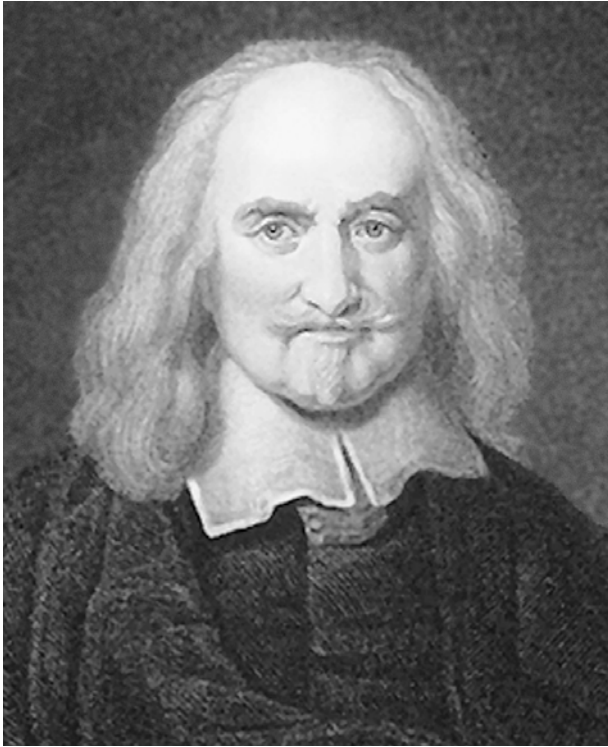
**Westport, England**

**Died:** December 4, 1679

**Hardwick Hall, England**

*English philosopher and political theorist*

**T**he English philosopher and political theorist Thomas Hobbes was one of the central figures of political thought behind the British Empire. His major



Thomas Hobbes.

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work, “Leviathan,” published in 1651, expressed his idea that basic human motives are selfish.

### Childhood

Born prematurely on April 5, 1588, when his mother heard of the coming invasion of the Spanish Armada (a fleet of Spanish warships), Thomas Hobbes later reported that “my mother gave birth to twins: myself and fear.” His father, also named Thomas Hobbes, was the vicar (a clergyman in charge of a church) of Westport near Malmesbury in Gloucestershire, England. After being involved in a fight with another clergyman outside his own church,

the elder Thomas Hobbes was forced to flee to London, England, leaving his wife, two boys and a girl behind.

Thomas was then raised and educated by an uncle and studied at the local schools. By the age of six he was studying Latin and Greek. Also at this time, Hobbes became absorbed in the classic literature of ancient Greece. From 1603 to 1608 he studied at Magdalen College, Oxford, where he was bored by the philosophy of Aristotelianism (studying the works of Aristotle, a fourth-century B.C.E. Greek philosopher).

### Scholarly work

The twenty-year-old future philosopher became a tutor to the Cavendish family, a well-known English family. This association provided him with a private library, foreign travel, and introductions to influential people. Hobbes learned to speak Italian and German and soon decided to devote his life to scholarly pursuits.

Hobbes, however, was slow in developing his thought—his first work, a translation of Greek historian Thucydides’s (died c. 401 B.C.E.) *History of the Peloponnesian Wars*, did not appear until 1629. Thucydides held that knowledge of the past was useful for determining correct action, and Hobbes said that he offered the translation during a period of civil unrest as a reminder that the ancients believed democracy (rule by the people) to be the least effective form of government.

In Hobbes’s own estimation the most important intellectual event of his life occurred when he was forty. While waiting for a friend he wandered into a library and came across a copy of Euclid’s (third century

B.C.E.) geometry. His interest in mathematics is reflected in his second work, *A Short Treatise on First Principles*, which presents a mechanical interpretation of sensation, as well as in his brief stint as mathematics tutor to Charles II (1630–1685).

For the rest of his long life Hobbes travelled and published many works. In France he met mathematicians René Descartes (1596–1650) and the Pierre Gassendi (1592–1655). In 1640 he wrote one of the sets of arguments to Descartes's *Meditations*.

Although born into the Elizabethan Age (c. 1550–1600; a time of great change in England), Hobbes outlived all of the major seventeenth-century thinkers. He became a sort of English icon and continued writing, offering new translations of Homer (an eighth-century B.C.E. Greek poet) in his eighties because he had “nothing else to do.” When he was past ninety, he became involved in controversies with the Royal Society, an organization of scientists. He invited friends to suggest appropriate epitaphs (an inscription on a tombstone) and favored one that read “this is the true philosopher's stone.” He died on December 4, 1679, at the age of ninety-one.

### ***His philosophy***

The questions Hobbes posed to the world in the seventeenth century are still relevant today, and Hobbes still maintains a strong influence in the world of philosophy. He challenged the relationship between science and religion, and the natural limitations of political power.

The diverse intellectual paths of the seventeenth century, which are generically called

modern classical philosophy, began by rejecting authorities of the past—especially Aristotle and his peers. Descartes, who founded the rationalist tradition, and Sir Francis Bacon (1561–1626), who is considered the originator of modern empiricism (political theory regarding the British Empire), both sought new methods for achieving scientific knowledge and a clear conception of reality.

Hobbes was fascinated by the problem of sense perception, and he extended Galileo's (1564–1642) mechanical physics into an explanation of human cognition (process of learning). He believed the origin of all thought is sensation, which consists of mental images produced by the pressure of motion of external objects. Thus Hobbes anticipated later thought by explaining differences between the external object and the internal image. These sense images are extended by the power of memory and imagination. Understanding and reason, which distinguish men from other animals, are a product of our ability to use speech.

### ***Political thought***

Hobbes explains the connection between nature, man, and society through the law of inertia (“bodies at rest tend to stay at rest; bodies in motion tend to stay in motion”). Thus man's desire to do what he wants is checked only by an equal and opposite need for security. Society “is but an artificial man” invented by man, so to understand politics one should merely consider himself as part of nature.

Such a reading is cold comfort as life before society is characterized by Hobbes, in a famous quotation, as “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short.” The equality of human desire is matched by an economy of natural

satisfactions. Men are addicted to power because gaining power is the only guarantee of living well. Such men live in a state of constant war, driven by competition and desire for the same goods. The important result of this view is man's natural right to seek self-preservation (protection of one's self) by any means. In this state of nature there is no value above self-interest because the absence of common power results in the absence of law and justice. But there is a second law of nature that men may surrender their individual will to the state. This "social contract" binds the individual to treat others as he expects to be treated by them.

In Hobbes's view the sovereign power of a commonwealth (England's power over its colonies) is absolute and not subject to the laws of its citizens. Obedience will remain as long as the sovereign (England) fulfills the social contract by protecting the rights of the individual. According to these laws Hobbes believed that rebellion is, by definition, unjust. However, should a revolution prove victorious, a new absolute sovereignty would rise up to take the place of the old one.

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## BILLIE HOLIDAY

**Born:** April 7, 1915

**Baltimore, Maryland**

**Died:** July 17, 1959

**New York, New York**

*African American jazz singer*

Billie Holiday was an African American jazz vocalist who perhaps showed the most expression of feeling of any singer in jazz history.

### **Early life**

Billie Holiday was born Eleanora Fagan on April 7, 1915, in Baltimore, Maryland. (She borrowed the name "Billie" from one of her favorite movie actresses, Billie Dove.) Born to an unwed teenage mother, Sadie Fagan, Holiday's childhood was one of poverty. Her father, Clarence Holiday (later a jazz guitarist) married Sadie three years later. He never lived with the family, choosing his musical career over them. As a child Billie started working very young, running errands and cleaning a house of prostitution's (a place where sexual acts are traded for money) marble stoop. It was here that she first heard Louis Armstrong (1900–1971) and Bessie Smith (1894–1937) records through the open windows.

### **New York City**

In 1928 Holiday moved to New York City with her mother, who began work as a housemaid, but the 1929 depression (time of low economic conditions with high rates of unemployment) soon left her mother without work. In 1932 Holiday auditioned for a singing job and was hired. For the next few



years she sang in Harlem clubs, then her career took off when Benny Goodman (1901–1986) used her on a record. But it was through a series of recordings made between 1935 and 1939 that her international reputation was established. During the late 1930s she was also a big band vocalist, first with Count Basie (1904–1984) in 1937 and then with Artie Shaw (1910–) in 1938.

Holiday's relationship with Basie's star tenor saxophonist Lester Young (1909–1959) is the stuff of legend. They were great musical coworkers and great friends for life. Young named her "Lady Day" (or simply "Lady"), and that title became her jazz world name from the mid-1930s on. She in turn labeled him "Pres" (the "President of Tenor Saxophonists").

Many successful tunes were recorded, interweaving Young's tenor saxophone with Holiday's voice. After the late 1930s they rarely recorded together, but to the end they remained soul mates. Holiday's career reached its peak in the late 1930s. In 1938 she worked a long engagement at Cafe Society. The following year she joined Benny Goodman on a radio broadcast.

Two songs of the period are noteworthy. The first, "Strange Fruit," is a detailed description of a lynching (an unjust killing because of race). Columbia record company considered it too inflammatory (exciting to the senses) and refused to issue it. A small record company, Commodore, finally released it in 1939. It became a big money-maker because of the tune on the record's other side, "Fine and Mellow," a blues song written by Holiday. Another tune always associated with her is "Gloomy Sunday," which spoke of such deep despair (misery) that it was kept off the airwaves for a time.



*Billie Holiday.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

### ***Personal tragedies***

By the mid-1940s Holiday had been arrested many times for illegal drug use. After one arrest, at her own request, she was placed in a federal rehabilitation (having to do with recovery from drug or alcohol abuse) center at Alderson, West Virginia, for a year and a day. Just ten days after being released she gave a concert at Carnegie Hall in New York City.

Neither Holiday's first husband, Joe Guy, a jazz guitarist who she divorced, or Louis McKay, who survived her, seemed able to save Holiday from herself. By the 1950s alcohol and marijuana had strained her voice, so that it was unnaturally deep and grainy and

occasionally cracked during performances. Nevertheless, her singing was sustained by her highly individual style, the familiarity she projected, and her special way with the words of a song.

Holiday made her final public appearance in a concert at the Phoenix Theatre in New York City on May 25, 1959. She died in Metropolitan Hospital in New York City on July 17, 1959, of "congestion of the lungs complicated by heart failure." At the time of her death she had been under arrest in her hospital bed for illegal possession of drugs.

Holiday's early small-group recordings have been rereleased in several boxed sets under the general title *Billie Holiday: The Golden Years*. Her best later work is to be found in *The First Verve Sessions*, recorded in 1952 and 1954.

On March 6, 2000, Holiday was inducted into the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame in the Early Influences category. That category includes artists whose music predates rock and roll, but who inspired and had a strong effect on rock and roll music.

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## OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

**Born:** August 29, 1809

**Cambridge, Massachusetts**

**Died:** October 7, 1894

**Boston, Massachusetts**

*American physician, author, professor*

American physician, teacher, and author Oliver Wendell Holmes contributed to the advancement of medicine and literature. He is also known for writing the famous poem "Old Ironsides."

#### **Early life**

Oliver Wendell Holmes was born in Cambridge, Massachusetts, on August 29, 1809, to a well-established New England family. His father, Abiel Holmes, was a reverend in the First Congregational Church. His mother, Sarah Wendell, daughter of a Boston merchant, came from a long line of Dutch ancestors who settled in New England. Although his father was a Calvinist (follower of John Calvin's study of religious faith, which strongly emphasized the supreme power of God and His foreknowledge of a believer's future) by training, he was very open to Christians of all faiths. He was a fair-minded man and a well-educated father, having a library of two-thousand books for his children to read. Oliver was the fourth of five Holmes' children, with three older sisters and one younger brother. Paul Bunyan's classic allegory (symbolic story) had a big impact on Oliver's lifetime religious views. He rejected many of the Calvinist ideas he was surrounded with in childhood, and this independence often leaned toward rebellion.

At age fifteen Oliver attended Phillips Andover Academy. He was instantly popular with his teachers his first year, when he translated Virgil's (70–19 B.C.E.) *Aeneid* from Latin into English. It is possible that Oliver's father thought the Calvinist focus at Andover would make a minister out of Oliver, but Oliver later wrote in *Life and Letters*, "I might have been a minister myself, if a [certain] clergyman had not looked and talked so like an undertaker."

### **Harvard man**

Holmes continued his studies at Harvard University in 1825, graduating in 1829. Harvard's strong Unitarian (church stressing individual freedom of belief) influences only strengthened Oliver's rejection of Calvinism. This first time at Harvard was when he began to enjoy writing. Publishing poems in Harvard's *The Collegian* and later in the *New England Galaxy* and *Amateur* gave him quite a bit of pleasure. His writing did not keep him from being social, as he had many friends and joined Phi Beta Kappa (an honor society made up of American college students and graduates who have excelled in liberal arts and sciences). Holmes's joy in life was evident with his possession of a fast horse and buggy and several rowboats at the ready. Holmes was also a fan of the racetrack and boxing rings.

After Holmes graduated from Harvard in 1829, he studied at the law school for a year, during which time he wrote the popular poem "Old Ironsides". His pencil-written poem was about the destruction of a once useful warship, the *USS Constitution*.

### **Prose begins**

A year after the publication of "Old Ironsides," Holmes started writing prose (literature



Oliver Wendell Holmes.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

different from poetry because of its irregular patterns and lack of rhyme) in the *New England Magazine*. This was a new publication and Holmes was an early contributor (one who writes for the magazine or newspaper), publishing "The Autocrat at the Breakfast Table" in the fifth month's copy. A year later he published another by the same title, and then five years later, in November 1857, he published an even longer version in the brand new *Atlantic Monthly*. He found the perfect place to express his very definite ideas in the pages of the *Atlantic Monthly*. In addition to these articles and his volumes of verse, he also wrote biographies: John L. Motley's (1814–1877) in

1879, and Ralph Waldo Emerson's (1803–1882) in 1885. Among his best-known poems are “The Deacon’s Masterpiece,” “The Last Leaf,” “The Chambered Nautilus,” “My Aunt,” “The Moral Bully,” and “Brother Jonathan’s Lament for Sister Caroline.”

In the same year of Holmes’s writing success, he decided to give up law in favor of a career in medicine. He started at the Boston Medical College and finished up at Harvard Medical School. He rounded out his training with two years of study in Paris from 1833 to 1835. France was considered the medical center of the world. Holmes was honored to work under the surgeon Larrey, reported to be Napoleon’s (1769–1821) favorite. Here he learned new techniques and approaches in medicine, reflected in two important early papers: “Homeopathy, and Its Kindred Delusions” in 1842, and “The Contagiousness of Puerperal Fever” (an unpredictable and often deadly difficulty of childbirth) in 1843. This was to be the medical work for which he is most remembered.

Holmes took his medical degree at Harvard in 1836. Although he began a general practice (active medical office) in Boston, it was his medical writings and teaching of anatomy that set Oliver Wendell Holmes apart. Nevertheless, Ralph Waldo Emerson encouraged his poetry. Due to the encouragement, Holmes published *Poetry*.

### Lecturer

Continuing to balance both writing and medicine, in 1836 Holmes received the Boylston Prize from Harvard for a medical essay, as well as two more in 1837. From 1838 to 1840 he served as professor of anatomy at Dartmouth College. Despite his inability to

travel widely in the United States due to his asthma, Holmes delivered many lectures on the topics of both science and literature. His medical writing often became lecture material that only added to his popularity as a scholar and a public figure. Of his lecturing style students said, “He enters, and is greeted by a mighty shout and stamp of applause.” The other professors requested that Holmes teach the last of the five morning lectures, because they knew he could hold the students’ attention even though they were tired.

Both Holmes’s writings and his lectures showed an open-minded understanding that his readers and listeners were educated people and should be spoken to as such.

In 1840 Holmes married Amelia Lee Jackson, daughter of the Massachusetts Supreme Court justice, and returned to general practice. They had three children: Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr., a future justice of the United States Supreme Court; a daughter, Amelia (the future Mrs. Turner Sargent); and Edward Jackson Holmes, a future Boston lawyer. In 1847 Oliver was appointed Parkman professor of anatomy and physiology at Harvard Medical School, where he served as dean from 1847 to 1853. Holmes remained at Harvard until 1882.

### Life joys

Holmes’s hobbies included interest in photography and the study of the microscope. He is credited with the invention of the stereoscope (an instrument with two eyeglasses for helping the observer combine the images of two pictures to get the effect of depth). His writing showed just as much variety as his training and his hobbies. He even wrote several well-remembered hymns. He died at his

house in Boston on October 7, 1894, just two months after his eighty-fifth birthday.

Even though he was rebellious against some of his childhood religious training, he maintained a healthy relationship with his God. He once wrote in a letter to a friend, "There is a little plant called Reverence in the corner of my soul's garden." As a scientist, teacher, lecturer, author, and poet, Holmes left his mark on his time period, and many honors came to him both at home and abroad.

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## OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES JR.

**Born:** March 8, 1841

**Boston, Massachusetts**

**Died:** March 6, 1935

**Washington, D.C.**

*American Supreme Court justice and legal writer*

As a Supreme Court justice and a legal writer, Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr. was a key figure in the debate

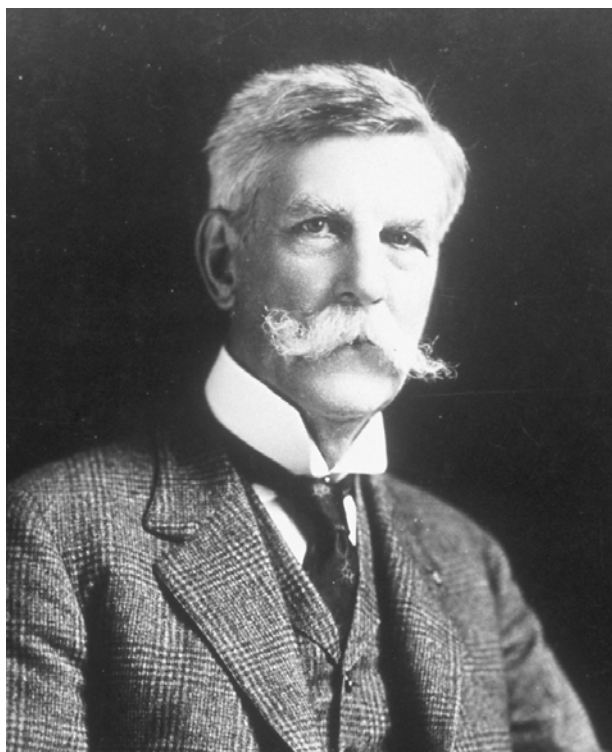
concerning the role of law in a rapidly changing America during the early twentieth century. Not only did he personally contribute to the debate, but he also served as a symbol to a generation of legal and political thinkers.

### *Born into a celebrated Boston family*

Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr. was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on March 8, 1841, into one of the city's most celebrated families. His father, Oliver Wendell Holmes, was a leader in the medical profession as well as a famous writer for the *Atlantic Monthly*, a popular political magazine in its time. His family life brought young Oliver into contact with many of Boston's leading intellectuals, including Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882), America's most famous essay writer and lecturer during this period.

### *Harvard and the impact of the Civil War*

Holmes entered Harvard College in 1857. There is little evidence that his college education was of great importance to him. Instead, Holmes's greatest learning experience was his part in the American Civil War (1861–65). The Civil War began as an attempt by the federal government of the United States to preserve the Union after eleven Southern states chose to leave and form an independent nation. The war also involved the issue of whether or not slavery would remain legal in parts of the country. After the federal government and the Northern states won the war, the Union was preserved and slavery was no longer allowed in any part of the United States. Holmes's participation in many battles resulted in three wounds, of which he was very proud. He left the military in July 1864.



Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

The impact of the war on Holmes had less to do with the political issues over which it had been fought than with its demonstration of the importance of commitment to a higher cause. America was changing rapidly, and Holmes grew up in a world where many accepted beliefs were being challenged. Holmes responded by developing a belief in the importance of devoting oneself to a cause even if it was incomprehensible, or unable to be understood by everyone.

Furthermore, the war supported Holmes's belief that all of life is a battle, with victory going to the strongest. In this way he fully accepted the emphasis of his age on

"survival of the fittest." Unlike many of his peers, however, he pointed out that the strongest force in a society was its majority, a belief he would stand by during his later career as a judge.

### *Legal career*

After the war Holmes attended Harvard Law School and graduated in 1866. The following year he was admitted to the Massachusetts bar, an association for lawyers. After his first trip to England, he threw himself into his legal career. He eventually helped found the firm of Shattuck, Holmes and Munroe. The time that remained after law practice he used for law study. In 1872 Holmes married Fanny Bowditch Dixwell, the daughter of his former schoolmaster.

Between 1870 and 1873 Holmes edited the *American Law Review*, a distinguished law publication. Holmes also updated the publication of the classic work *Commentaries on American Law* (1873), written by Chancellor James Kent (1863–1847).

Throughout the 1870s Holmes was also researching the questions he would discuss in a set of lectures at the Lowell Institute in 1880. These, published the following year as *The Common Law*, brought him worldwide fame. The first paragraph of *The Common Law* contains what is probably Holmes's most famous sentence: "The life of the law has not been logic: it has been experience." He goes on to argue that law is a series of responses to social problems, not simply a set of theories that are difficult to understand. His book contributed to the awakening interest in the United States in "sociological jurisprudence," or the relationship between law and other social institutions.

### Career as a judge

Holmes then became a professor of law at Harvard Law School. He had worked in this position for less than a year when he became an associate justice of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts on January 3, 1883. He was promoted to chief justice on August 5, 1899, and his reputation as a daring thinker began to grow. Many of Holmes's groundbreaking opinions upheld the right of the state to regulate the economy and other social issues.

Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) became president in 1901. The new president was eager to appoint men to the Supreme Court who would help change the role of government and would uphold the new laws he himself wanted to pass. Viewing Holmes as such a man, Roosevelt appointed him to the U.S. Supreme Court. Holmes took his seat on December 8, 1902, at the age of sixty-one.

Holmes's most important early opinions dealt with regulation of the national economy. His most famous opinion of the economy is probably *Lochner v. New York*. In this case, Holmes strongly disagreed when the Court struck down a New York law limiting the hours a baker could be made to work. He rejected the Court's social thinking. For him the key question was not whether or not this was right or wrong but rather "the right of a majority to embody their opinions in law."

### Freedom of speech

Holmes became even more famous after World War I (1914–18) because of his opinions regarding the regulation of freedom of speech. Although his reasoning was not

always faultless, he used his superb writing skills to raise a powerful sense of the importance of civil liberties, or freedoms.

In *Schenck v. United States* (1919) Holmes upheld the conviction of a man who had encouraged people to resist the draft. (The draft was a federal law that ordered men to register with the military in case they would be needed in times of war.) Holmes's support of this conviction was not because the man ignored federal law, rather that he was a "clear and present danger" to the peace and order of society.

In *Abrams v. United States* (1919) Holmes wrote his most passionate defense of free speech. He argued that only a "free trade in ideas" could guarantee the truth and that defense of freedom of speech is essential.

### The admired justice leaves the court

Tall, erect, and handsome in his youth, Holmes had grown into an even more imposing man, with a splendid handlebar moustache and white hair. As an elderly judge, he was surrounded often by admiring younger men and was, by all accounts, a lively figure. In his old age he was increasingly admired by many of those who would lead the next political generation. He left the Supreme Court on January 12, 1932, before it accepted his theories concerning its role in regulating the economy. (The Court would later accept them in the 1940s.)

Holmes died on March 6, 1935, in Washington, D.C. Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr. was a legal trailblazer who helped define the role of law in the twentieth century. His theories and ideas are as relevant today as they were when he wrote them.

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## HOMER

**Born:** Ninth century B.C.E.

**Died:** Ninth century B.C.E.

*Greek poet*

**H**omer, the major figure in ancient Greek literature, has been considered the greatest poet of classical antiquity (ancient times). He wrote both the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, two epic poems (long narrative poems) surviving in a surprisingly large number of manuscripts.

**Portrait of Homer**

It is not possible to supply a biography for Homer in the accepted sense of a life history. Since he lived before cultures began recording history, there is no authentic record of who he was, when and where he was born,

how long he lived, or even if he was actually responsible for the two epic poems for which he is known.

It is arguable that in one incident of the *Odyssey* the poet may be giving a glimpse of himself in the disguise of a bard (singing poet), whom he calls Demodokos and whom he introduces to the court of the Phaeacian king, where the shipwrecked Odysseus is generously entertained. This Demodokos is described as a “divine singer to whom the god gave delight of singing whatever his soul prompted him.” He is also described as being blind, which also supports the argument that Homer was portraying himself, because there was a belief that Homer was blind.

**Evidence from the epics**

This lack of any historical record of Homer’s life leaves only what can be taken from the poems themselves. On this task many scholars have attempted to draw conclusions about Homer, often without acceptable results.

The setting of the *Iliad* is the plain of Troy (an ancient Greek city) and its immediate surroundings. Details of the land are so precise that it is not feasible to suppose that their author created them out of his imagination. To be sure, there is the objection that not all of the poem’s action can be made to fit the present-day lands.

In the *Odyssey* the situation is in many respects quite different. The poet demonstrates that he knew the western Greek island of Ithaca (where the second half of the epic takes place) as well as the poet of the *Iliad* knew the plain of Troy. The *Odyssey*, however, also extends over many strange, distant



lands, as Odysseus's homeward voyage from Troy to his native Ithaca is transformed into a bizarre sea-wandering adventure.

Perhaps misled by the accuracy with which the Trojan plain is described in the *Iliad* and the island of Ithaca is pictured in the *Odyssey*, various modern commentators have tried to impose the same realism on Odysseus's astonishing voyage, selecting actual sites in the western Mediterranean Sea for his adventures. The true situation must be that the Homer of the *Odyssey* had never visited that part of the ancient world, but he had instead listened to the stories of returning Ionian sailors who explored the western seas during the seventh century B.C.E.

### **Theory of two authors**

That the author of the *Iliad* was not the same as the author of these fantastic tales in the *Odyssey* is arguable on several levels. The two epics belong to different literary types: the *Iliad* is essentially dramatic in its confrontation of opposing warriors who converse like the actors in a tragedy (a play with struggle and disappointment), while the *Odyssey* is cast as a novel narrated in more everyday human speech. In their physical structure, also, the two epics display an equally obvious difference: the *Odyssey* is composed in six distinct parts of four chapters ("books") each, whereas the *Iliad* moves unbrokenly forward in its tightly woven plot.

Readers who examine psychological qualities see in the two works some distinctly different human responses and behavioral attitudes. For example, the *Iliad* voices admiration for the beauty and speed of horses, while the *Odyssey* shows no interest in these animals. The *Iliad* dismisses dogs as mere



Homer.

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scavengers, while the poet of the *Odyssey* reveals a modern sympathy for Odysseus's faithful old hound, Argos.

The strongest argument for separating the two poems is the chronology, or dating, of some of the facts in the pieces. In the *Iliad* the Phoenicians are praised as skilled craftsmen working in metal, and as weavers of elaborate, much-prized garments. In contrast, Greek feelings toward the Phoenicians have undergone a drastic change in the *Odyssey*. Although they are still regarded as clever craftsmen, the Phoenicians are also described as "tricksters," reflecting the invasion of Phoenecian commerce into Greek markets in the seventh century B.C.E.

**Oral composition**

One thing, however, is certain: both epics were created without writing sources. Between the decline of Mycenaean and the emergence of classical Greek civilizations—which is to say, from the late twelfth to the mid-eighth century B.C.E.—the inhabitants of the Greek lands had not yet acquired from the eastern-most shore of the Mediterranean the familiarity with Phoenician alphabetic writing that would lead to classical Greek literacy (and in turn, Etruscan, Roman, and modern European literacy). Therefore it could be concluded that the epics must have been created either before the end of the eighth century B.C.E. or so shortly afterwards that the use of alphabetic writing had not yet been developed sufficiently to record long pieces of writing. It is this illiterate (unable to read or write) environment that explains the absence of all historical record of the author's two great epics.

It is probable that Homer's name was applied to two individuals differing in style and artistic accomplishment, born perhaps as much as a century apart, but practicing the same traditional craft of oral composition and recitation (to read out loud). Although each became known as "Homer," it may be (as one ancient source says) that "homros" was a word for a blind man and so came to be used generically to refer to the old and often sightless wandering reciters of heroic legends. Thus there could have been many Homers.

The two epics Homer is generally regarded as writing, however, have been as highly prized in modern as in ancient times for their vividness of expression, their keenness of personal characterization, and their lasting interest, whether in narration of action or in animated dramatic dialogue.

**Other works**

Later Greek times credited Homer with the composition of a group of comparatively short "hymns" (songs of praise) addressed to various gods, of which twenty-three have survived. With a closer look, however, only one or two of these, at most, can be the work of the poet of the two great epics. The epic "The Battle of the Frogs and Mice" has been preserved but adds nothing to Homer's reputation. Several other epic poems of considerable length—*The Cypria*, *The Little Iliad*, *The Phocais*, *The Thebais*, and *The Capture of Oichalia*—were also credited to Homer in classical times.

The simple truth seems to be that the name Homer was not so much that of a single individual but an entire school of poets flourishing on the west coast of Asia Minor (today, the area of Turkey). Unfortunately, we will probably never know for sure, since during this period the art of writing had not been sufficiently developed by the Greeks to permit historical records to be compiled or literary compositions to be written down.

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## SOICHIRO HONDA

**Born:** November 17, 1906

**Iwata-gun, Japan**

**Died:** August 5, 1991

**Tokyo, Japan**

*Japanese businessman*

An independent person in a country not known for its willingness to accept nonconformists (those that do not cooperate with customs), Soichiro Honda created an automobile giant despite the opposition of the Japanese government. One of his company's cars, the Accord, was a best-selling model in the American market.

### *Early life*

The first son of blacksmith Gihei Honda and his wife Mika, Soichiro Honda was born on November 17, 1906, in rural Iwata-gun, Japan. In 1922 he graduated from the Futamata Senior Elementary School. Honda had little tolerance for formal education and jumped at every opportunity he had to work with his true love: motors. Throughout his life Honda never forgot the impression that was made on him when he sighted his first automobile.

After leaving school Honda began his career as an apprentice (a person who works to gain experience in a trade) auto repairman for Arto Shokai in Tokyo. In 1928 he returned to his hometown as a master mechanic and soon established a branch shop for the firm in Hamamatsu, Japan.

### *Building an empire*

During this time Honda also participated in auto races and became interested in cars

and motorcycles. Soon he was experimenting with engines, and in 1928 he organized the Tohai Seiki Company to manufacture piston rings, some of which were sold to Toyota, a major Japanese car manufacturer.

Honda's first attempts at the personal motor business came in the mid-1940s when he designed and manufactured a small engine that could be attached to a bicycle to create a motorbike. The venture proved a great success.

Encouraged by his early success, in 1948 he organized the Honda Motor Company. The following year Honda manufactured a small motorcycle called the "Dream D" and prepared to enter the highly competitive Japanese market, which he did through effective advertising. Within a decade Honda was the leading motorcycle manufacturer in the world and had a larger share of the American motorcycle market than Toyota and Nissan (with its Datsun cars) had in automobiles.

Now Soichiro Honda attracted press attention, and, unlike most Japanese businessmen, he loved it. A small but talkative man, he was the opposite of what westerners imagined Japanese businessmen to be. For example, he promoted executives on the basis of performance rather than age, an unusual practice at large Japanese firms. Honda continued racing autos and motorcycles, dressed casually, and took pride in maintaining his independence from the Japanese business establishment. In addition, Honda openly voiced his admiration of American business practices and way of life.

### *Automobiles*

This was at a time when the powerful Ministry of Trade and Industry (MITI) was



*Soichiro Honda.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

trying to unite several small companies into a third large one to compete with Toyota and Nissan. MITI and the Department of Transportation tried to discourage Honda from adding to the number of companies, but he persisted. He won MITI's permission by coming out with a low-priced small sportscar, the S 500, which was different from anything produced by the other companies. He followed it up with other sports models. His company was still very small, producing only three thousand cars in 1966—half of what Toyota was turning out in a week.

Honda introduced the Civic to the American market in 1972. It got thirty-nine

miles per gallon (mpg) on the road and twenty-seven mpg in city driving, remarkably efficient for an automobile. The popularity of the Civic rose throughout the 1970s, and in 1980 Honda sold 375,000 cars in the American market—almost three times as many as Subaru and twice as many as Mazda, but still behind Toyota and Nissan. The reasons for this success were obvious: Honda combined high quality with efficiency and economy. But his small cars still appealed to a limited market.

### ***Transforming Honda***

In the late 1970s and early 1980s Honda expanded his car company overseas. In 1979 he opened a motorcycle plant near Columbus, Ohio, and an auto plant followed soon after, prompting other Japanese companies to follow his lead. In the late 1970s Toyota and Nissan sold one-third of their cars to the United States, while Honda sold half of his in that market.

Soichiro Honda did not directly supervise these introductions or the development of overseas plants in the United States and Europe. He resigned in 1973, but stayed at the company as “supreme adviser.” In 1988 he became the first Japanese carmaker to be inducted into the Automobile Hall of Fame. Honda died of liver failure August 5, 1991, in a Tokyo hospital. Honda's rise from humble beginnings to a powerful and influential businessman is one of twentieth century's most inspirational stories.

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## BELL HOOKS

**Born:** September 25, 1952

**Hopkinsville, Kentucky**

*African American activist, educator, and writer*

Writer, professor, and social critic, bell hooks is undeniably one of the most successful “cross-over” academics of the late twentieth century. Her books look at the function of race and gender in today’s culture.

### *Childhood*

Born Gloria Jean Watkins on September 25, 1952, bell hooks was raised in Hopkinsville, Kentucky, a small, segregated (separated by race) town in rural Kentucky. She recalled her neighborhood as a “world where folks were content to get by on a little, where Baba, mama’s mother, made soap, dug fishing worms, set traps for rabbits, made butter and wine, sewed quilts, and wrung the necks of chickens.” She later explained how this community turned the hardships created by racism (the idea that one race is superior to another) into a source of strength. The neighborhood where she grew up provided young Gloria with her resistance to racism, but it also provided her

with the negative and positive experiences that would shape her feminism (support of equal rights for women).

Gloria was one of six siblings: five sisters and a baby brother. Her father worked as a janitor, and her mother, Rosa Bell Oldham Watkins, worked as a maid in the homes of white families. As a student at segregated public schools, hooks was taught by a dedicated group of teachers, mostly single black women, who helped to shape the self-esteem (satisfaction with oneself) of children of color. But the late 1960s Kentucky schools became desegregated. By the time she was ten, hooks had begun writing her own poetry and soon developed a reputation for her ability to recite poetry.

### *Learned to “talk back”*

Although hooks was supposed to become a quiet, well-behaved young woman, she became instead a woman who “talked back.” This action, for which hooks eventually named a volume of essays, actually refers to the development of a strong sense of self that allows black women to speak out against racism and sexism.

Although young hooks continued to write poetry—some of which was published—she gained a reputation as a writer of critical essays on systems of domination. In order to do this work, she found that she needed to develop a different voice, a different name. She first used her pseudonym (assumed name)—her maternal great-grandmother’s name—for a small book of poems. She decided not to capitalize her first and last names in an attempt to place the focus on her work, rather than her name.



bell hooks.

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Photography, Inc.

### **Wrote first book at nineteen**

After high school, hooks accepted a scholarship to Stanford University, in California. Despite her full-time studies she began *Ain't I a Woman* at the age of nineteen. She also took a job as a telephone operator. Finding time for her writing was a challenge, but hooks found that the job offered her something she did not have in school at the time—a community of working-class, black women.

The author went through several drafts of the manuscript over the next six years before she had one that satisfied her. It was at this moment that the persona of bell hooks truly rescued Gloria Watkins. At first hooks

had considerable trouble publishing her work, and eventually she was directed to her future publisher, South End Press, while giving a talk at a feminist bookstore in San Francisco. Once published in 1981, *Ain't I a Woman* became a central book in discussions of racism and sexism. Eleven years later, *Publishers Weekly* ranked it among the “twenty most influential women’s books of the previous twenty years.”

### **A career in higher education**

While *Ain't I a Woman* made bell hooks an important name in feminist debate, she continued her work. After obtaining a doctorate degree in English literature, she began her teaching career. It was in her role as a teacher that hooks felt she was doing her most important work. She knew that for a people historically and legally denied the right to education, teaching was one of the most substantial forms of political resistance she could choose.

After holding various positions at the University of California in Santa Cruz, California, in the early 1980s, hooks left for Yale University in New Haven, Connecticut, when she had the opportunity to teach in African American Studies. In 1988 she joined the faculty at Oberlin College, in Ohio, where she would teach in Women’s Studies, a program that now offered the critique of racism that was absent during her undergraduate years.

Taking a post with the City College of New York in 1995, hooks moved to the Henry Holt publishing company and came out with *Killing Rage: Ending Racism*, a book that calls for a more proactive approach (initiative) to solving the problem of racism in America.

Hooks lives in New York City and remains an important figure in the fight against racism and sexism in America. With the release of *Communion: The Female Search for Love* in 2002, hooks has more than twenty books to her name with more to come.

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## BENJAMIN HOOKS

**Born:** January 31, 1925

**Memphis, Tennessee**

*African American activist, executive director, and lawyer*

**B**enjamin Hooks was an executive director of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and is the first African Ameri-

can board member of the Federal Communications Commission.

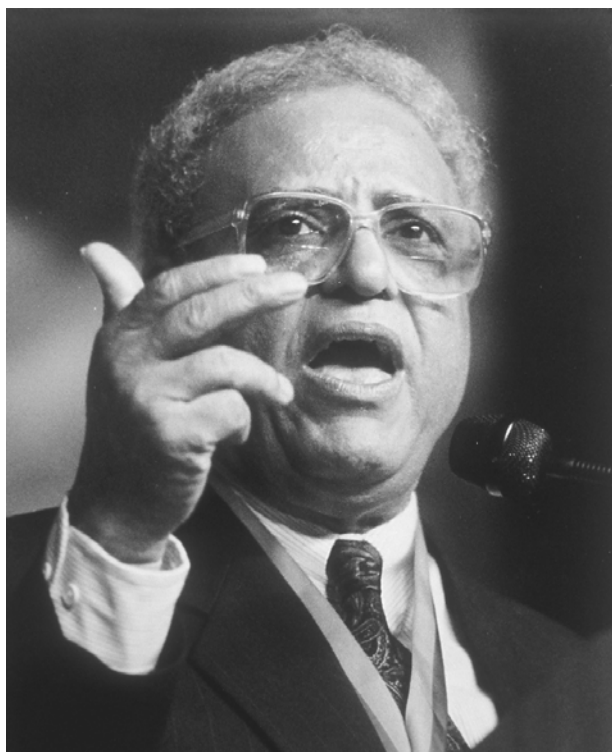
### **Many role models**

Benjamin Lawson Hooks, the fifth of seven children, was born in Memphis, Tennessee, in 1925 to Robert B. and Bessie Hooks. Hooks's father and uncle ran a successful photography business. His grandmother, a musician who graduated from Berea College in Kentucky, was the second African American female college graduate in the nation. With such evidence of success and hard work as his personal examples, Hooks was encouraged to do well in his studies and to prepare for higher education.

Following the Depression of 1929, an economic slump in which millions of workers lost their jobs and homes, many banks failed, and many factories closed, the Hooks family's standard of living declined. With money so scarce during those years, African American clients could rarely afford wedding pictures or family portraits, therefore, business slowed down. Still, the family always had food, clothing, and shelter. Hooks's parents were careful to see that all of their children kept up their appearance, attitude, and academic performance.

### **Law student to civil rights worker**

After high school, Hooks studied pre-law at LeMoyne College in Memphis. He successfully completed that program and then served in the army during World War II (1939–45) guarding Italian prisoners. He realized that in Memphis, these prisoners would have more rights than he did. When he left the army he continued his studies at Howard University and at DePaul University



*Benjamin Hooks.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

Law School in Chicago, Illinois—no law school in the South would admit him. He returned to the South to aid in the civil rights movement rather than establish a practice in Chicago. From 1949 to 1965 he was one of the few African Americans practicing law in Memphis. He recalled in *Jet* magazine, “At that time you were insulted by law clerks, excluded from white bar associations and when I was in court, I was lucky to be called ‘Ben.’ Usually it was just ‘boy.’” In 1949, Hooks met a teacher named Frances Dancy. In 1952 the couple were married.

In 1956 Hooks became a Baptist minister, and he joined the Southern Christian

Leadership Conference (SCLC; an organization that worked to gain equality for African Americans) of Reverend Martin Luther King (1929–1968). He also became a bank director and the cofounder of a life insurance company. After several attempts to be elected to public office, he was appointed to serve as a criminal judge in Shelby County, Memphis, in 1965. He thus became the first African American criminal court judge in the state of Tennessee. The following year he was elected to the same position.

Hooks took part in many civil rights protests. He served on the board of the SCLC and became a life member of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). He was a leader of many NAACP-sponsored boycotts (protests in which organizers refuse to have dealings with a person, store, or organization in an attempt to get the object of the protest to change its policies or positions) and sit-ins in restaurants that refused to serve African Americans. In spite of his shyness Hooks became a skilled orator (public speaker) whose quick wit and sense of humor delighted audiences. He also served as the moderator (a person who presides over a meeting) of several television shows discussing issues of importance to African Americans.

### ***Federal Communications Commissioner***

Hooks was so often in the public eye that Tennessee senator Howard Baker (1925–) submitted his name to President Richard Nixon (1913–1994) for political appointment. Nixon had promised African American voters that they would be treated fairly by the broadcast media. Thus, in 1972 he named Hooks to fill an opening on the board of the



Federal Communications Commission (FCC). Benjamin and Frances Hooks soon moved to Washington, D.C. Frances Hooks served as her husband's assistant, advisor, and traveling companion, giving up her own career as a teacher and guidance counselor. She told *Ebony* magazine, "He said he needed me to help him. Few husbands tell their wives that they need them after thirty years of marriage, so I gave it up and here I am. Right by his side."

The FCC regulated television and radio stations as well as long-distance telephone, telegraph, and satellite communications systems. Hooks felt that his primary role was to bring a minority point of view to the commission. After noticing that only 3 percent of FCC employees were African Americans, and they were generally in low-paying positions, he encouraged the commission to hire more African American workers at all levels. By the time he left the agency, African Americans made up about 11 percent of the employee population. Hooks also urged public television stations to be more responsive to the needs of African American viewers by treating them fairly in news coverage and including programming directed toward them.

### NAACP

In 1977 Roy Wilkins, who had been the executive director of the NAACP since 1955, retired. The NAACP board of directors wanted an able leader to take his place. They all agreed that Benjamin Hooks was the man. Hooks resigned from the FCC after five years and officially began his directorship on August 1, 1977.

When Hooks took over the organization, its membership had decreased from half a

million to just over two hundred thousand. Hooks immediately directed his attention toward rebuilding the base of the association through a membership drive. He also spoke out on behalf of increased employment opportunities for minorities and the complete removal of U.S. businesses from South Africa. He told *Ebony* magazine, "Black Americans are not defeated. . . . The civil rights movement is not dead. If anyone thinks we are going to stop agitating, they had better think again." Hooks's leadership of the NAACP was marked by internal disputes. He was suspended by the chair of the NAACP's board, Margaret Bush Wilson (1919–), after she accused him of mismanagement. These charges were never proved. In fact, he was backed by a majority of the sixty-four-member board and continued in the job until retiring in 1993.

### Later years

Throughout his career, Benjamin Hooks has stressed the idea of self-help among African Americans. He urges wealthy and middle-class African Americans to give time and resources to those who are less fortunate. "It's time today . . . to bring it out of the closet. No longer can we provide polite, explicable [easily explained] reasons why black America cannot do more for itself," he told the 1990 NAACP convention as quoted by the *Chicago Tribune*. "I challenge black America today—all of us—to set aside our alibis."

After his retirement, Hooks served as pastor of Middle Baptist Church and president of the National Civil Rights Museum, both in Memphis. He also taught at Memphis University. In July 1998, nearly fifty years after Hooks first began practicing law in Memphis, Ten-

nessee governor Don Sundquist (1936–) asked Hooks, along with four others, to serve on a special state Supreme Court to oversee Tennessee's election and retention of appellate court judges. (Appellate courts consider appeals, or hearings to decide whether an error has been made and the decision of a lesser court should be reversed.)

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## BOB HOPE

**Born:** May 29, 1903

**Eltham, England**

*American comedian and actor*

**I**n addition to his successes on radio, in movies, on television, and in live shows, Bob Hope entertained members of the American military all over the world and made many appearances to benefit different charities.

### ***"Hopeless" childhood***

Born in Eltham, England, on May 29, 1903, Leslie Townes Hope was one of Harry and Agnes Townes Hope's seven surviving boys. His father was a stonemason (a construction worker), and his mother had been a concert singer in Wales. By the age of four

Hope was a skilled mimic and loved to sing and dance. In 1908 the family left England and settled in Cleveland, Ohio. For Hope, who looked and sounded British, the adjustment was difficult. Neighborhood kids turned his name around to create the nickname "Hopelessly." When he shortened his name to Les, they began to refer to him as "Hopeless." As a result of all this teasing, Hope often got in fights. He developed into a boxer of some skill.

As a youth Hope sold two-cent newspapers on the streets of Cleveland to help his family out. On one occasion a man in a long, black limousine waited while Hope rushed into a nearby store to get change for a dime. When he returned he received a lecture about the importance of keeping change in order to take advantage of all business opportunities. The man in the limousine was John D. Rockefeller (1839–1937), founder of Standard Oil Company and one of the richest men in the world.

### ***Enters show business***

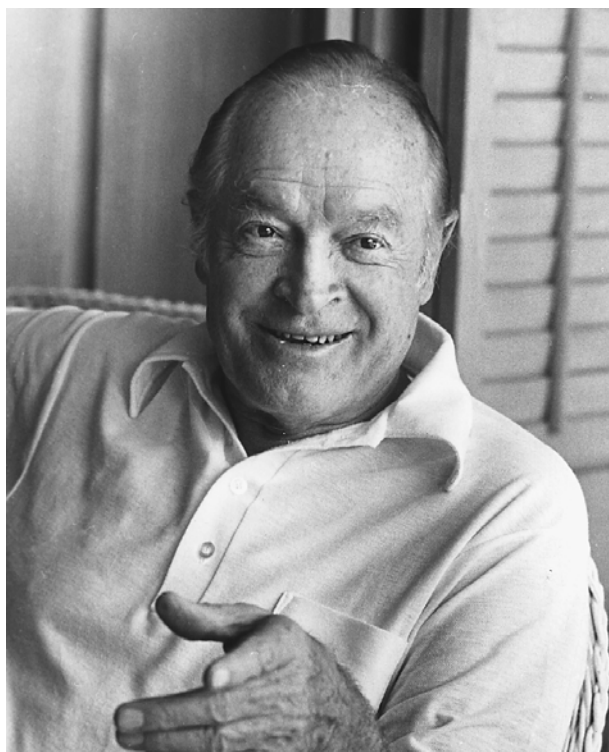
As a teenager Hope once said that he would rather be an actor than hold an honest job. He performed whenever possible, mainly dancing and telling the one-line jokes for which he later became famous. He gained experience in an act he formed with a comedian from Columbus, Ohio, named George Byrne. Using the name Lester, Hope went with Byrne to New York City in 1926. They performed in cities and towns throughout the state. They finally appeared in a New York City vaudeville (traveling stage entertainment featuring several different performers) production called "Sidewalks." They were fired within a month, however.

Hope got his first chance to work as a solo act at the Stratford Theatre in Chicago, Illinois, in 1928. He changed his name to Bob because he felt that would be “chummier” and would look better on a theater sign. Hope always made his audience feel at ease and comfortable by making himself the subject of his humor. He worked hard and succeeded but soon left the Stratford to tour Midwestern cities. From 1920 to 1937 Hope performed in all kinds of shows both on and off Broadway, earning a reputation as a master of the one-liner (a short joke). By 1932 Hope was earning a thousand dollars a week during a time when millions of people were out of work. Still, he was not satisfied. He always wanted to improve and to become an outstanding comic in the business.

### ***Hope and Crosby***

Hope met actor and singer Bing Crosby (1904–1977) in 1932, and they started performing together in song and dance routines. Hope met actress Delores Reade in 1933 and later married her. In 1935 Hope joined the “Ziegfield Follies” and performed in cities outside New York. In January 1936 he opened in the “Follies” at New York City’s Winter Garden Theatre. The “Ziegfield Follies” was the musical highlight of Broadway, consisting of beautiful girls and costumes, witty dialogue between the actors and actresses, and music by such great composers as Vernon Duke (1903–1969) and Ira Gershwin (1896–1983).

Although Hope had acted in some short motion picture comedies as early as 1934, he began his feature-length movie career in Hollywood in 1938 with *The Big Broadcast of 1938*, which also starred comedian W. C. Fields (1880–1947). This was the beginning of an active film career for Hope. He went on to



*Bob Hope.*

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appear in fifty-two movies, including six films in the *Road* series (including *The Road to Zanzibar* and *The Road to Rio*), which also featured Crosby and Dorothy Lamour (1914–1996).

### ***Performed for the troops***

Hope has always been strongly patriotic. On December 7, 1941, when Japanese attack planes bombed Hawaii’s Pearl Harbor, causing the United States to enter World War II (1939–45; a war in which Germany, Japan, and Italy fought against Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), Hope spoke out against the attack. During a radio broadcast on December 16, Hope declared his

love for his country: "There is no need to tell a nation to keep smiling when it's never stopped. It is that ability to laugh that makes us the great people that we are . . . Americans!"

In 1942 Hope was asked to make an entertainment tour of Alaskan army bases. Hope brought other performers along and put together a variety show for the troops stationed there. That was the beginning of a commitment on Hope's part that has never ended. Every year, especially during the Christmas season, he has led a drive to present shows to American men and women in the armed forces. At the Academy Awards in February 1941, Hope was given a special award for his many benefit performances. He also won honorary (awarded without meeting the usual requirements) Oscars in 1940, 1944, 1952, and 1965.

#### **Later years**

Some of Hope's charitable activities involve golf. Hope has played the game all of his life, including with several U.S. presidents. In 1964 he agreed to have the Palm Springs Classic golf tournament renamed The Bob Hope Desert Classic, which he has hosted ever since. Since the administration of Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945), Hope has appeared many times at the White House. Hope's seventy-fifth birthday party, held in the Washington Kennedy Center, was attended by members of Congress and by many of Hope's acting friends. Another celebration was held at the Kennedy Center in 1983, when Hope turned eighty years old. This time President Ronald Reagan (1911–) and his wife, Nancy (1921–), hosted the celebration. At the celebration Hope showed no signs of slowing down.

In May 1993 NBC celebrated Hope's ninetieth birthday with the three-hour spe-

cial "Bob Hope: The First Ninety Years." The show featured tributes from every living U.S. president at that time. By then, according to *TV Guide*, Hope had made more than five hundred TV shows and seventy movies. Hope concluded his sixty-year contract with NBC in November 1996, when his final special, "Laughing with the Presidents," aired.

*The Guinness Book of World Records* called Hope the most honored entertainer in the world. By mid-1995 he had received more than two thousand awards, including fifty-four honorary doctorate degrees, *The Saturday Evening Post* reported. In 1998 Hope and his wife Delores announced that they would donate his personal papers and collection of almost 90,000 jokes to the Library of Congress. In June 2000 Hope spent six days in the hospital because of internal bleeding.

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**ANTHONY  
HOPKINS**

**Born:** December 31, 1937

**Port Talbot, Wales**

*Welsh actor*

Actor Anthony Hopkins worked on stage and in film for over thirty years before receiving his first Academy Award for his performance in *The Silence of the Lambs*.

### **Humble beginnings**

Anthony Hopkins was born in Port Talbot, Wales, on December 31, 1937, the only child of Richard Hopkins, a baker, and his wife Muriel. Hopkins had a difficult childhood; he often felt isolated and lonely. Although he studied piano and could draw well, Hopkins did not excel at Cowbridge Grammar School. The famous actor and fellow Port Talbot native Richard Burton (1925–1984) inspired Hopkins. At the age of fifteen, after getting Burton's autograph, Hopkins decided he wanted to be famous.

Hopkins dropped out of school at age seventeen and enrolled in a drama class at a local YMCA. Skilled at the piano, he earned a scholarship to the Cardiff College of Music and Drama, where he studied for two years. After two years of military service, Hopkins worked in theater. In 1961 he received a scholarship to the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art in London, England. After graduating in 1963, Hopkins worked at several different theaters before applying to the famous National Theatre in 1965. He was invited to join the company and remained a member until 1973.

### **Personal troubles**

As Hopkins's stage and film career began to take off in the 1960s, he became known for his temper—he walked out in the middle of a National Theatre performance of *Macbeth*—and his excessive drinking. Hopkins married actress

Petronella Barker in 1967, but by the time their daughter Abigail was eighteen months old, the couple had split. In 1973 Hopkins married Jennifer Lynton, a film production assistant. In 1974 they moved to New York City, where Hopkins appeared in the Broadway production of *Equus*, once stopping a performance to yell at late-arriving audience members. Hopkins, who continued to drink heavily, then moved to Hollywood, California. After waking up one day in a hotel room in Arizona with no idea how he got there, he quit drinking in 1975.

Hopkins began to accept whatever acting jobs he was offered. From 1975 to 1985 he appeared in over twenty-five movies made for either television or theatrical release. Although he earned two Emmy Awards (in 1976 and 1981), most of the movies he made during this time period, including *Audrey Rose* (1977), *International Velvet* (1978), and *A Change of Seasons* (1980), were less than memorable. In 1985 Hopkins moved back to London and returned to the stage. Over a seventeen-month period he appeared in two hundred performances of two different William Shakespeare (1564–1616) plays. In 1988 he received an honorary (achieved without meeting the usual requirements) degree of Doctor of Letters from the University of Wales. In 1993 he was knighted.

### **Fame and fortune**

In 1991 Hopkins earned an Academy Award for best actor in *The Silence of the Lambs*. He played Dr. Hannibal “The Cannibal” Lecter, a killer known for eating his victims. Although he appeared in only twenty-seven minutes of the movie, this role finally made Hopkins a superstar. After *The Silence of the Lambs*, he acted in four films released in



Anthony Hopkins.

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1992 and five in 1993. His most noticed film was *The Remains of the Day* (1993), for which he was nominated (put forward for consideration) for another Academy Award for his role as Stevens, the reserved butler.

Hopkins also earned Academy Award nominations for his performances as two U.S. presidents: Richard Nixon (1913–1994) in *Nixon* (1995), and John Quincy Adams (1767–1848) in *Amistad* (1997). Hopkins was now earning over five million dollars per movie. After filming *Titus* (1999), he took a year off. In April 2000 he became an American citizen. In 2001 he returned to the role of Hannibal Lecter in *Hannibal*. He then

resumed his usual work pace, appearing in several films including *Hearts in Atlantis* (2001) and *Bad Company* (2002). He also volunteered to teach a class at the Ruskin School of Acting in Santa Monica, California.

Hopkins has changed little since his time in Port Talbot. He is still a loner, taking long trips in his car by himself to relax. He has continued to push himself, but he has also learned not to push too hard. He told *Vanity Fair* magazine, "It can't get better than this. Years ago I wanted to be rich and famous, and it all happened to me. . . . They pay me a lot of money, more money than I ever dreamed of. It just cannot get better than this."

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## LENA HORNE

**Born:** June 30, 1917

**Brooklyn, New York**

*African American singer*

Lena Horne is known as one of the most popular African American entertainers of the twentieth century. A woman of great beauty and commanding stage presence, she performed in nightclubs, concert halls, movies, and on radio and television.

### *Lena's early years*

Lena Horne was born in Brooklyn, New York, on June 30, 1917. Her father, Edwin "Teddy" Horne, who worked in the gambling trade, left the family when Lena was three. Her mother, Edna, was an actress with an African American theater troupe and traveled extensively. Horne was mainly raised by her grandparents, Cora Calhoun and Edwin Horne. Yet, she still moved a great deal in her early years because her mother often took her with her on the road. They lived in various parts of the South before Horne was returned to her grandparents' home in 1931. After they died, Horne lived with a friend of her mother's, Laura Rollock. Shortly thereafter Edna remarried and Horne moved in with her mother and her mother's new husband. The constant moving resulted in Lena having an education that was often interrupted. She attended various small-town, segregated (separated by race) schools when in the South with her mother. In Brooklyn she attended the Ethical Cultural School, the Girls High School, and a secretarial school.

From an early age Horne had ambitions of becoming a performer—much against the wishes of her family, who felt she should have higher goals. The Hornes were an established middle class family, with several members holding college degrees and distinguished positions in organizations such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the Urban League (a group that worked to increase the economic and political power of minorities and to end discrimination based on race). Nonetheless, Horne pursued her own course and at age sixteen was hired to dance in the chorus at Harlem's famed Cotton Club. In



*Lena Horne.*

*Reproduced by permission of Schomburg Center for Research.*

1934 Lena took voice lessons, and she also landed a small role in an all-black Broadway show *Dance with Your Gods*. In 1935 she became the featured singer with the Noble Sissle Society Orchestra, which performed at many first-rate hotel ballrooms and night-clubs. She left Sissle in 1936 to perform as a "single" in a variety of New York City clubs.

### *Experiences unequal treatment because of race*

In 1937 Horne married minor politician Louis Jones, by whom she had a daughter, Gail, and a son, Edwin (they separated in

1940 and divorced in 1944). She gained some early stage experience in Lew Leslie's revues, *Blackbirds of 1939* and *Blackbirds of 1940*, and in 1940 she joined one of the great white swing bands, the Charlie Barnet Orchestra. But as the group's only black member she suffered many humiliations of racial prejudice, especially from hotels and restaurants that catered exclusively to whites.

Horne left Barnet in 1941. Her career received an immediate boost from entertainment manager John Hammond, who got her a long engagement at the famous Cafe Society Downtown, a club in New York City. It was at the Cafe Society that Horne learned about African American history, politics, and culture and developed a new appreciation of her heritage. She rekindled her acquaintance with Paul Robeson (1898–1976), whom she had known as a child. Horne's conversations with Robeson made her realize that the African American people were going to unify and make their situations in life better. She felt she needed to be a part of that movement. From that point onward, Horne became a significant voice in the struggle for equality and justice for African Americans in the United States.

### **Film career begins**

In 1943 a long booking at the Savoy-Plaza Hotel, which brought Horne national coverage and a number of movie appearances, established her as the highest-paid African American entertainer in the United States. She was signed to a seven-year contract with the movie studio Metro Goldwyn Mayer (MGM)—the first African American woman since 1915 to sign a term contract with a film studio. She was not dark enough in color to star with many of the African American actors

of the day and her roles in white films were limited, since Hollywood was not ready to portray interracial relationships on screen.

Given these harsh limitations imposed on African Americans in 1930s and 1940s Hollywood movies, Horne's film career is impressive. After singing roles in *Panama Hattie* (1942), *Harlem on Parade* (1942), *I Dood It* (1943), *Swing Fever* (1943), and *As Thousands Cheer* (1943), she was given a starring role in an all-black story, *Cabin in the Sky* (1943), which also starred her idol, Ethel Waters (1900–1977). Another major role followed in *Stormy Weather* (1943) and then some nonspeaking roles in *Broadway Rhythm* (1944), *Two Girls and a Sailor* (1944), and a musical biography of Rodgers and Hart, *Words and Music* (1948). She refused to take on any roles that were disrespectful to her as a woman of color.

### **Works for civil rights**

Horne, despite her great fame, continued to experience humiliating racial discrimination (wrongful treatment because of race), and in the late 1940s she sued a number of restaurants and theaters for race discrimination and also began working with Paul Robeson in the Progressive Citizens of America, a political group opposing racism. During World War II (1939–45; a war in which Germany, Italy, and Japan fought against France, Great Britain, China, the Soviet Union, and the United States), she used her own money to travel and entertain the troops. She also assisted Eleanor Roosevelt (1884–1962) in her mission for antilynching legislation (laws making it illegal to hang a person accused of a crime without a trial). After the war Horne worked on behalf of Japanese Americans who faced discrimination.



In 1947 she married a white bandleader, Lennie Hayton, a marriage that was kept secret for three years because of racial pressures. Until his death in 1971, Hayton was also her pianist, arranger, conductor, and manager.

In the mid-1950s Horne made a movie appearance in *Meet Me in Las Vegas* (1956) and recorded for the first time in five years. In 1957 she drew record crowds to the Empire Room of the Waldorf-Astoria, and in 1958 and 1959 she starred in a Broadway musical, *Jamaica*.

During the 1960s Horne was involved in the American Civil Rights Movement. She participated in the March on Washington in 1963, performed at rallies in the South and elsewhere, and worked on behalf of the National Council for Negro Women. During the same period, she was also very visible on television, appearing on popular variety shows and in her own special, *Lena in Concert*, in 1969. In 1969 Horne starred in the movie *Death of a Gunfighter*.

### ***Personal tragedy and continuing success***

Lennie Hayton's death in 1971, which followed the deaths of Horne's father and her son, plunged her into a state of depression from which she emerged seemingly more determined than ever. In 1973 and 1974 she toured England and the United States with Tony Bennett (1926–), and in 1979 she was billed with composer Marvin Hamlisch at the Westbury (New York) Music Fair.

In 1981 Horne had her greatest triumph, a Broadway show called *Lena Horne: The Lady and Her Music*, which was the talk of show business for fourteen months. It won a special Tony award, and the soundtrack won two Grammy awards.

In the 1990s Horne cut back on performing. She was drawn back from semiretirement to do a tribute concert for a longtime friend, composer Billy Strayhorn, at the JVC Jazz Festival. At age seventy-six she released her first album in a decade, *We'll Be Together Again*. In 1997, on the occasion of her eightieth birthday, Horne was honored at the JVC Jazz Festival with a tribute concert and the Ella Award for Lifetime Achievement in Vocal Artistry. In 1999 she was honored at the New York City's Avery Fisher Hall with an all-star salute.

Lena Horne is an amazing woman. Her pride in her heritage, her refusal to compromise herself, and her innate elegance, grace, and dignity has made her a legendary figure. Her role as a person who has helped to improve the status of African Americans in the performing arts has provided a permanent legacy.

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**HARRY  
HOUDINI**

**Born: March 24, 1874**

**Budapest, Hungary**

**Died: October 31, 1926**

**Detroit, Michigan**

*Hungarian-born American magician*

**M**agician, actor, and stage personality Harry Houdini—The Great Houdini—was the greatest escape artist of all time. He often said, “No prison can hold me; no hand or leg irons or steel locks can shackle me. No ropes or chains can keep me from my freedom.”

### **Early life**

Although Harry Houdini claimed to be born on April 6, 1874, in Appleton, Wisconsin, the fact was that Erich Weiss, born March 24, 1874, in Budapest, Hungary, was the youngest of three sons of Rabbi Samuel and Cecilia (Steiner) Weiss (who also had a daughter, Gladys). To find a better life, the Weiss family left Hungary and settled in Appleton. “Perhaps April 6 was the date Samuel Weiss arrived in Wisconsin,” remarked Ruth Brandon in her *The Life and Many Deaths of Harry Houdini*. Other moves took the Weisses to Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and New York.

Erich was devoted to his mother and sought ways to ease her hard life. At one point he took to begging for coins in the street. He hid the coins in his hair and clothing, then presented himself to his mother and said, “Shake me, I’m magic.” She did, and a flood of coins spilled out. The family remained poor, however. Erich began selling newspapers and shining shoes at the age of eight to help out.

Erich was also very interested in magic. After serving as a young circus acrobat (“Eric,

Prince of the Air”), he began to study locks and how to “pick” them, or open them using a tool other than a key. He worked as a necktie cutter in a garment factory to earn money to support his hobby. At age seventeen Erich entered show business, taking the stage name Houdini after the nineteenth-century French magician Robert-Houdin. (“Harry” was an Americanized version of Erich.) By age twenty Houdini had married Wilhelmina Beatrice Rahner (known as Bess), who became his partner onstage as well.

### **Show business success**

As “Mysterious Harry and La Petit Bessie,” the Houdinis played amusement parks and music halls, and they even toured with a circus for a time. When response to their escape tricks and magic was poor, they performed a comedy act, stealing old jokes from magazines. During these early years, Harry would often perform his “Hindoo Needle Trick,” in which he appeared to swallow forty needles before drawing them from his mouth, all threaded together. Bess performed as a mind reader, using a code of numbers and letters known to her and Harry. In 1895, in Massachusetts, Houdini first thought up the idea of escaping not from his own handcuffs, but from those of the local police. These stunts brought free publicity, which increased Houdini’s popularity.

Houdini’s American tours were followed by successful appearances in Europe. With success came imitators, as anyone could buy a version of the Hindoo Needle Trick. (Houdini himself had purchased it.) Houdini worked hard to stay ahead of the pack. He began performing escapes from straitjackets, jails, coffins, handcuffs, and shackles (something

that confines the arms or legs). At each performance he invited police officials onstage to examine him and his props to make sure they were real. Except, with his skill as a magician, he was still able to hide things. As Brandon wrote, “When he had to strip naked, he sometimes hid a small pick in the thick skin on the sole of a foot—not a spot that would ordinarily be searched.” In 1908 Houdini began performing a trick in which he was locked inside a large iron milk can filled with water. He could escape within three minutes.

In June 1918 Houdini made his move into film, playing a character called the Master Detective. In this series of stories the detective, named Quentin Locke, saved women from danger through great stunts, and of course, great escapes. Both the stories and the performances were weak, but the films showed Houdini the way his public wanted to see him. Each magic routine or stunt was shown as “real,” with no camera tricks helping out the Master Detective.

### *The spirit world calls*

Steve and Patricia Hanson related in a *Los Angeles* magazine article that Houdini became interested in “making contact with those who had gone beyond” after his mother’s death in 1913. His attempts in this area brought him into contact with writer Sir Arthur Conan Doyle (1859–1930), the creator of the Sherlock Holmes character. In 1908, as a publicity stunt, Houdini had written a letter to “Holmes,” asking for help in catching crooks who were stealing his tricks. By 1920 the two men had formed a friendship based on their talent and their grief—just as Houdini had lost his beloved mother, Doyle had lost his son, Kingsley, who had been killed in World



*Harry Houdini.*

*Reproduced by permission of Archive Photos, Inc.*

War I (1914–18; a war in which Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Japan fought against Great Britain, France, Russia, and the United States). Each man sought ways to make contact with the spirit world.

After a while the friendship began to weaken. Houdini was not as strong a believer as Doyle. Part of Houdini’s career was devoted to exposing fakes who pretended to be able to contact spirits. As the Hansons noted in *Los Angeles*, Houdini felt that Doyle was too blinded by grief to see clearly, and Doyle thought that Houdini was not open-minded enough and was too anxious to expose fraud. The two men’s friendship ended.

### *The passing of a legend*

No evidence of real contact with Houdini's mother was ever recorded, but her death haunted Houdini until the occasion of his own passing. Even that event has since been clouded by the myths that always seemed to accompany him. For instance, a feature film of Houdini's life released in 1953 showed him dying in one of his own watery coffins during a performance. There were many other incorrect stories describing his death.

What really happened was that Houdini, while on tour in Montreal, Canada, was relaxing backstage where some college students came to see him. Houdini often challenged people to punch him in the stomach with all their strength, and he agreed to let one of the students take a swing. But the punch came while Houdini was lying on a couch, before he had prepared for the impact. An injury to the appendix resulted. Left untreated for several days, it turned into an infection that struck Houdini down during a performance in Detroit, Michigan. Rushed to a hospital, he held on for a few days before dying in his wife's arms on October 31, 1926—Halloween day.

Even in death Houdini knew how to create publicity. His widow made headlines by announcing that every year on the anniversary of his death she was going to try to make contact with his spirit. This went on for some ten years, and though Bess once claimed that contact was made, she later changed her story. Houdini continues to live on in the public's imagination. After a lifetime of pretending to have mythic talents, Houdini became a myth himself.

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## GORDIE HOWE

**Born:** March 31, 1928

**Floral, Saskatchewan, Canada**

*Canadian hockey player*

**F**ormer professional hockey player Gordie Howe earned the fame of being the most durable player of all time, playing twenty-six seasons for five decades in the National Hockey League. During that time, he was one of the game's most productive scorers.

### *Howe's youth in Canada*

Gordie Howe was born in Floral, Saskatchewan, Canada, on March 31, 1928.

He was the fifth of nine children. At three months of age his family moved to nearby Saskatoon, where his father worked as a mechanic, a laborer, and a construction worker to support his family. The family was poor, as were many of their neighbors during the Great Depression (a period in the 1930s where economic hardship led to a lack of jobs, and the majority of the people in the United States and Canada were living in poverty). As a result Gordie was often sick as a child because of poor nutrition. He was also painfully shy and awkward—a problem that he would face throughout his adulthood. Gordie's significant moment came when a neighbor sold a sack of used belongings to his mother for cash. When they opened the bag, the first thing that he saw was a pair of skates. Five-year-old Gordie had received his first pair of skates.

### ***Devoted to hockey***

Howe immersed himself in hockey, playing day in and day out throughout the year, using a puck, a tennis ball, or even clumps of dirt. He was a big boy but was clumsy in his youth. He did not make it the first time he tried out for a local youth hockey team. By the time he was twelve years old, however, Howe had developed into an excellent skater.

During the summers, Howe worked with his father at construction sites. He described it as “throwing concrete.” The heavy work helped him develop the exceptional strength that he would one day use to make himself one of the fastest shots in hockey. At the age of fifteen Howe was a 6-foot, two-hundred-pounder, very big at that time for a hockey player.

### ***Pro tryouts***

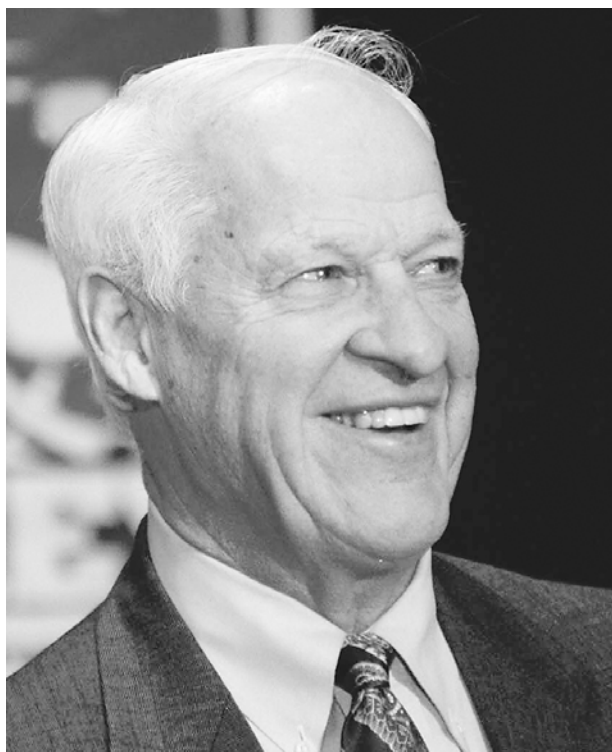
Howe had already caught the eye of the professional scouts (people who gather information about players not yet in professional sports). When he was fifteen, the New York Rangers invited him to a tryout camp. The camp director, though, was unimpressed. He felt Howe was too awkward and would not make it in the major leagues. Despite this rejection, Howe landed a tryout with the Detroit Red Wings the next year. Jack Adams, coach and general manager of the team, was definitely impressed by young Howe and signed him to a contract.

Howe, then seventeen years old, was assigned to the Red Wings' minor league farm team in Omaha, Nebraska. He had an excellent season, and the next year he was given a shot at making the major-league club. He made the Red Wings, and in his first game gave a sample of what was to come. He scored a goal, skated tirelessly, and had perfect control. His goal came in the second period, and he literally powered his way through the players from the blue line to make the goal.

It took Howe three seasons to “mature” as a professional. He scored a total of thirty-five goals those first three years. From that point on, Howe was a consistent scorer. Starting in 1949 and 1950, Howe was one of the NHL's top scorers, which he continued to be for two decades.

### ***A serious accident***

In 1950, though, Howe's career almost came to an abrupt end. In the first playoff game against the Toronto Maple Leafs, Howe collided with Toronto's Ted Kennedy and flew



Gordie Howe.

Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.

head first into the sideboards. His skull was fractured and he suffered a concussion (a brain injury caused by a hard blow). He also had his cheekbone and nose broken. In the hospital, surgeons had to operate to relieve the pressure on his brain. He was in critical condition for days.

The next season Howe came back. The question was, would he still have the same fire and aggressiveness that he had before? Howe responded by playing in every game and by leading the NHL in goals, assists, and total points that season.

### *League leader*

Leading the league in scoring became a regular occurrence for Howe. He won the scoring title six times. He was selected the NHL's Most Valuable Player six times. Howe's development as a star also led to his team's development as consistent winners. From 1949 to 1955 the Detroit Red Wings won the league title seven straight times, and they were Stanley Cup playoff champions four times.

In 1951 Howe met Colleen Joffa, and in 1953 the two were married. They would eventually have four children: Martin, Mark, Cathy, and Murray. The boys soon became involved in youth hockey.

Throughout his career Howe was a supporter of self-defense on the ice to avoid getting hurt. He was a feared figure on the ice. He had sharp elbows and a quick stick. Some thought him to be sneaky and players kept out of his way. Howe was everything one would expect the ideal athlete to be: he was intelligent, demanding, and hardworking. He was not a person to take any abuse from other players. If they tried to intimidate him, they ended up on the "short end of the stick." His number one goal was to play good, hard hockey.

With the flying elbows and flying pucks that come with hockey, and no helmets at the time, facial cuts and stitches were common in the game. Howe estimated that he had received three hundred stitches in his face.

### *Joined his sons*

Howe surpassed Maurice "Rocket" Richard's (1921–2000) scoring record in 1963. By the time he retired from the Red

Wings in 1971 at the age of forty-three, he held the records for goals, assists, and total points. He also had the record for most games played. He accepted a job in the team's front office. But in 1973, when the Houston Aeros of the new World Hockey Association (WHA) signed his sons Marty and Mark, Howe asked about joining them. Playing on the same professional team as his sons had been a dream. He got himself back into shape and returned triumphantly, scoring one hundred points, winning the league's Most Valuable Player award, and leading his team to the WHA championship.

Howe continued to play in the WHA through 1977. He moved to the Hartford Whalers and when that team was combined into the NHL in 1978, he was back for a second tour of duty in his old league. Howe's autobiography, *And . . . Howe!: An Authorized Autobiography* was published in 1995. He continued to make special appearances playing in charity games well into the 1990s.

In September of 1997, at the age of sixty-nine, Howe announced he would play one game, the October 3 season opener, with the International Hockey League's Detroit Vipers. His one-shift stint made him the only professional hockey player to play in six different decades.

The Howes continue to be involved in charitable activities and live an active lifestyle. In 2001 the couple was honored when a school in Abbotsford, Canada, was named the Colleen and Gordie Howe Middle School. In January 2002 they carried the Olympic torch through Detroit, Michigan, for the 2002 Winter Olympics.

### ***Best hockey player of all time?***

When Gordie Howe broke Maurice "Rocket" Richard's National Hockey League (NHL) scoring record, the debate was whether Richard or Howe was the best player of all time. Years later when Wayne Gretzky (1961–) broke Howe's record, the debate was renewed—this time Gretzky versus Howe. The debate still continues.

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## **JULIA WARD HOWE**

**Born:** May 27, 1819

**New York, New York**

**Died:** October 17, 1910

**Newport, Rhode Island**

*American author and reformer*

**J**ulia Ward Howe, American author and reformer, wrote the words for "The Battle Hymn of the Republic." She was also a ground-breaking activist in the pursuit of women's right to vote.



Julia Ward Howe.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

### ***Growing up in New York***

Julia Ward Howe was born Julia Ward in New York City on May 27, 1819. She was the fourth of seven children of a successful Wall Street banker. When Howe was five years old, her mother died. Because of her father's conservative nature, she was limited in her socializing. Eventually Howe was introduced to New York society, and her charm made her an instant favorite.

Shortly after Howe turned twenty, her father also died. She then moved to Boston in hopes of recovering from her loss. In 1843 she married Samuel Gridley Howe (1801–1876), a physician, pioneer teacher of the

blind, and reformer. Although some of her Boston friends included poet Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807–1882) and essayist Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882), she found Boston society cold and uninviting. About the same time, Howe's views of a woman's role in society began to change. She became outspoken and oftentimes voiced her opinion, although it was not common for women to do so at the time.

### ***A literary career***

While in Boston the Howes edited the *Commonwealth*, an antislavery paper. Howe's first book, a collection of poems, was published in 1854. Afterwards she wrote many volumes of verse, travel descriptions, and essays. None was so popular as her patriotic song, "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," which she composed in a tent one night after visiting military camps during the American Civil War (1861–65; a war fought in the United States between the northern states and the southern states that resulted in the end of slavery in the country). During the war Howe was a strong supporter of the northern states and their antislavery stand. Because of the song she wrote based on her wartime beliefs, she became one of the best-known and most widely honored women in America.

Meanwhile other conflicts drove her to take action in support of peace. As a Francophile, or supporter of France, she was horrified by the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71; a war between France and Prussia, or states that made up what is today Germany). This antiwar view led Howe to become president of the American Branch of the Woman's International Peace Association in 1871.



### ***The women's movement***

After the American branch of the peace association failed, Howe began working to concern the nation's women on issues concerning the homefront. She helped found the New England Woman's Club in 1868. That same year she organized the New England Woman Suffrage Association and later the American Woman Suffrage Association. (Suffrage is the right to vote.) These two groundbreaking associations pushed for a woman's right to vote in America.

New York feminists (fighters for women's rights), led by Susan B. Anthony (1820–1906) and Elizabeth Cady Stanton (1815–1902), wanted the cause to embrace many social and political issues, from marriage questions to labor unions. More conservative Boston feminists, including Howe and Lucy Stone (1818–1893), focused on women's rights alone. The conservative Boston feminists encouraged men to join the movement, whereas the New Yorkers believed that men limited the organization's efforts. For more than twenty years these differences divided the movement into two organizations: the American Woman Suffrage Association and the Stanton-Anthony National Woman Suffrage Association.

Eventually the National came around to the American's point of view, and the two associations united in 1890 as the National American Woman Suffrage Association. Although Howe's careful strategy was adopted, it was another thirty years before women were given the right to vote under the Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution, in 1920.

In 1908 Howe was the first woman elected to the American Academy of the Arts and Letters, an organization for famed artists and writers. She died on Oct. 17, 1910, in

Newport, Rhode Island. She is remembered chiefly for "The Battle Hymn," in some ways the least of her accomplishments. Yet there is justice in this. She wrote it to help free the slaves, and later it became the anthem of the women's suffrage movement. Even later it was used by civil rights workers. In 1968, when the funeral train for Senator Robert Kennedy (1925–1968) carried his body from New York City to Washington, D.C., "The Battle Hymn" was sung by mourners.

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HOWARD  
HUGHES

**Born:** December 24, 1905

**Houston, Texas**

**Died:** April 5, 1976

**Houston, Texas**

*American entrepreneur and inventor*

**H**oward Hughes was a colorful and flashy businessman and inventor who used an inherited fortune to achieve a national reputation in the motion picture and aviation industries.

### ***Childhood***

Howard Robard Hughes was born in Houston, Texas, on December 24, 1905, the only child of Howard Robard Hughes and Alene Gano Hughes. His father earned millions by inventing special machinery for the oil industry. He attended private schools in California and Massachusetts and was very inventive as a child. At the age of twelve he made a radio transmitter out of an electric doorbell, and later he made a self-starting motor for his bicycle. At the age of fourteen he made his first airplane flight.

Hughes then attended the Rice Institute in Houston, and the California Institute of Technology. His mother died when Hughes was sixteen and his father just two years later, leaving him an orphan with an estate worth \$871,000 and a patent (right to ownership) for a drill bit used in most oil and gas drilling that brought large revenues to the family's Hughes Tool Company, manufacturers of the bit.

### ***The movie business***

Hughes left school to take control of the company, using its profits to finance a variety of projects, which he hoped would make him a legend in his own time. In 1925, at age twenty, Hughes married Ella Rice and moved to Los Angeles, California, (they separated in 1928). In 1927 Hughes entered the motion picture business and produced such films as

*Scarface* (1932), and *The Outlaw* (1941), and the box-office smash *Hell's Angels* (1930). He discovered actors Jean Harlow (1911–1937) and Paul Muni and made Jane Russell (1921–) a well-known star.

While living in Hollywood, California, the multimillionaire movie producer led a relatively quiet lifestyle. He lived in small apartments or rented homes and rarely participated in Hollywood's social world of the rich and famous.

### ***Aviation***

In 1928 Hughes obtained a pilot's license. His interest in aviation (flying) led him to found the Hughes Aircraft Company in Glendale, California, in 1932 and to design, build, and fly record-breaking airplanes. He set a world speed record in 1935, transcontinental (crossing a continent) speed records in 1936 and 1937, and a world flight record in 1938. Hughes was honored with the Harmon Trophy and a New York City ticker-tape parade after his world flight. He was awarded the Collier Trophy in 1939, the Octave Chanute Award in 1940, and a Congressional Medal in 1941.

In 1939 Hughes began work on an experimental military aircraft, and in 1942 he received a contract to design and build the world's largest plane, a wooden seaplane, later nicknamed the "Spruce Goose." It was supposed to serve as a troop carrier in World War II (1939–45).

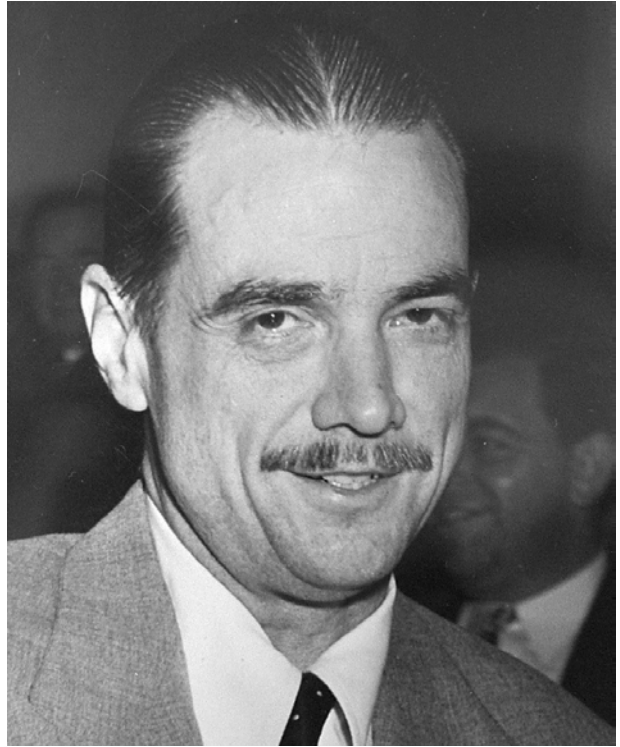
Hughes suffered a nervous breakdown in 1944 and was critically injured in the crash of his experimental military plane in 1946, but he recovered and flew the huge seaplane the next year. As a result of these aviation activi-

ties, Hughes became a popular public figure because his image represented the traditional American qualities of individuality, daring, and imagination. He was named to the Aviation Hall of Fame in 1973.

The Hughes Aircraft Company became a major defense contractor after World War II. As the profits of the company increased, Hughes became obsessed with avoiding taxes and in 1953 created the Howard Hughes Medical Institute as a sophisticated tax shelter to which he transferred the profits of the aircraft company. In 1956 Hughes loaned \$205,000 to future President Richard Nixon's (1913–1994) brother Donald in a successful effort to influence an Internal Revenue Service (IRS) ruling on the medical institute. Hughes made secret contributions of \$100,000 to the successful Nixon presidential campaign in 1970 and was able to prevent enforcement of the Tax Reform Act against the medical institute. Hughes continued to use profits from the tool company for other ventures, including the creation of Trans World Airlines (TWA), in which he had begun investing in 1939.

### *Life in seclusion*

In 1950 Hughes began a strange life of isolation, beginning a lifestyle which would ultimately turn him into a recluse (one who retreats from the world), although he did marry actress Jean Peters in 1957, divorcing her in 1971. Hughes refused to appear in court or even give a statement, and in a 1963 antitrust case over his ownership of 78 percent of TWA, his failure to appear resulted in a ruling that led him to sell his holdings in 1966. The \$566 million received from this sale was invested by Hughes in hotels, gambling casi-



*Howard Hughes.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

nos, golf courses, a television station, an airport, and land in Las Vegas, Nevada. In 1972 the Hughes Tool Division, the basis of the Hughes fortune, was sold. The holding company was renamed Summa Corporation and its headquarters relocated to Las Vegas, where Hughes had moved his residence.

From this point on Hughes's career accomplishments were minimal. His obsession to control every aspect of his environment turned him into a recluse. He was seen only by a few associates and remained isolated from the operations of his company. In 1970 he left the United States, and moved from place to place—the Bahamas, Nicaragua, Canada, Eng-

land, and Mexico. He always arrived unannounced in luxury hotels and took extreme precautions to ensure privacy. Hughes saw only a few male aides, worked for days without sleep in a black-curtained room, and became emaciated (thin from starvation) from the effects of his diet and the excessive use of drugs.

Hughes's concern for privacy ultimately caused controversy, resulting in a scandal over his supposed memoirs (writings of personal experiences) by author Clifford Irving that sold for \$1 million before being proven to be fake. The Hughes conglomerate (a group of diverse businesses) became involved with the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), and in 1975, built an undersea exploratory drilling ship which was actually used by the CIA to attempt to recover a sunken Soviet (Russian) submarine. The company retained a Washington, D.C., public relations firm that was also involved with the CIA, which led the Hughes corporation to become involved in the "Water-gate" affair, a scandal that ultimately led to the resignation of President Nixon in 1973.

Hughes died on April 5, 1976, on an airplane that was taking him from Acapulco, Mexico, to a hospital in Houston for medical attention. Hughes was controversial even after his death. Several wills appeared, one of which was found in the Mormon church in Salt Lake City, Utah, but all were later declared to be forgeries.

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## LANGSTON HUGHES

**Born:** February 1, 1902

**Joplin, Missouri**

**Died:** May 22, 1967

**New York, New York**

*African American poet and playwright*

American author Langston Hughes, a moving spirit in the artistic movement of the 1920s often called the Harlem Renaissance, expressed the mind and spirit of most African Americans for nearly half a century.

#### **Early life**

Langston Hughes was born in Joplin, Missouri, on February 1, 1902, to Carrie M. Langston and James N. Hughes. His parents separated soon after his birth, and Hughes was raised mainly by his mother, his grandmother, and a childless couple, the Reeds. He attended public schools in Kansas and Illinois and upon graduating elementary school, Hughes was named class poet, although he had never even written a poem. That title sparked an interest in writing poetry.

Hughes graduated from high school in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1920. His high school companions, most of whom were white, remembered him as a handsome “Indian-looking” youth whom everyone liked and respected for his quiet, natural ways and his abilities. He won an athletic letter in track and held offices in the student council and the American Civic Association.

In high school Hughes was introduced to the works of poet Carl Sandburg (1878–1967), another poet from the Midwest. Also at this time, Hughes himself began writing poetry and developing his unique style. He began submitting his work to magazines, but all were rejected.

### *A career begins*

Hughes spent the year after high school in Mexico with his father, who tried to discourage him from writing. But Hughes’s poetry and prose (writings) were beginning to appear in the *Brownie’s Book*, a publication for children edited by W. E. B. Du Bois (1868–1963), and he was starting work on more ambitious material for adult readers. The poem “A Negro Speaks of River,” which marked this development, appeared in the *Crisis* magazine in 1921.

Hughes returned to America and enrolled at Columbia University in New York City. Meanwhile, the *Crisis* printed several more of his poems. Finding the atmosphere at Columbia unfriendly, Hughes left after a year. He took on odd jobs in New York, and in 1923 he signed on to work on a freighter (a large ship). His first voyage took him down the west coast of Africa; his second took him to Spain. In 1924 he spent six months in Paris, France. He was relatively happy, pro-



*Langston Hughes.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

duced some prose, and experimented with what he called “racial rhythms” in poetry. Most of this verse (poetry) appeared in African American publications, but *Vanity Fair*, a magazine popular among middle- and upper-class women, published three poems.

Later in 1924 Hughes went to live with his mother in Washington, D.C. He hoped to earn enough money to return to college, but work as a hotel busboy paid very little, and life in the nation’s capital, where racial tensions were fierce, made him unhappy. But he was able to write many poems. “The Weary Blues” won first prize in 1925 in a literary competition sponsored by *Opportunity*, a magazine

published by the National Urban League. That summer one of his essays and another poem won prizes in the *Crisis* literary contest. Meanwhile, Hughes had come to the attention of Carl Van Vechten, a novelist and critic, who arranged publication of Hughes's first volume of poetry, *The Weary Blues* (1926).

This book projected Hughes's lasting themes, established his style, and suggested the wide range of his poetic talent. It showed him committed to racial themes—pride in blackness and in his African heritage, and the everyday life of African Americans—and democracy (government ruled by the people) and patriotism (the support of one's country). Hughes transformed the bitterness which such themes generated in many African Americans of the day into sharp irony and humor. His casual, folklike style was strengthened in his second book, *Fine Clothes to the Jew* (1927).

### **A literary success**

Hughes had resumed his education in 1925 and graduated from Lincoln University in 1929. *Not without Laughter* (1930) was his first novel. The story portrays an African American boy, Sandy, caught between two worlds and two attitudes. The boy's hard-working and respectable mother provides a counterpoint to his energetic, easygoing, footloose father. The mother is oriented to the middle-class values of the white world; the father believes that fun and laughter are the only things worth pursuing. Though the boy's character is blurred, Hughes's attention to the details of African American culture in America gives the novel insight and power.

The relative commercial success of *Not without Laughter* inspired Hughes to make his living as an author. In 1931 he made the first

of what became annual lecture tours. The following year he took a trip to the Soviet Union, the former country that today consists of Russia and other smaller nations. Meanwhile, he turned out poems, essays, book reviews, song lyrics, plays, and short stories. He edited five books of African American writing and worked with Arna Bontemps on another and on a book for children. He wrote some twenty plays, including "Mulatto," "Simply Heavenly," and "Tambourines to Glory." He translated Federico Garcia Lorca, the Spanish poet, and Gabriela Mistral (1889–1957), the Latin American Nobel laureate poet, and wrote two long autobiographical works (a biography about oneself).

As a newspaper columnist for the *Chicago Defender*, Hughes created "Simple." This enduring character brought his style to perfection and solidified his reputation as the "most eloquent [fluent and persuasive] spokesman" for African Americans. The sketches of Simple, collected in five volumes, are presented as conversations between an uneducated, African American city dweller, Jesse B. Semple (Simple), and an educated but less sensitive African American friend. The sketches that ran in the *Defender* for twenty-five years are varied in subject and remarkable in their relevance to the universal human condition. That Simple is a universal man, even though his language, habits, and personality are the result of his particular experiences as an African American man, is a measure of Hughes's genius.

Hughes received numerous fellowships (scholarships), awards, and honorary degrees, including the Anisfield-Wolf Award (1953) for a book on improving race relations. He taught creative writing at two universities;

had his plays produced on four continents; and made recordings of African American history, music commentary, and his own poetry. He was elected to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences and to the National Institute of Arts and Letters. His work, some of which was translated into a dozen languages, earned him an international reputation. Forty-seven volumes bear Hughes's name. He died in New York City on May 22, 1967.

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**Died: May 22, 1885**

**Paris, France**

*French author*

The French author Victor Hugo, is regarded by many as the supreme poet of French romanticism (a style in the 1800s that emphasized a free form of writing and expressed strong emotions, experiences of common people, and imaginative expressions and passion). He is known for producing large amounts of work, the ability to easily write poetry or novels, and his incredible vision.

### Hugo's early years

Victor Marie Vicomte Hugo was born in Besançon, France, on February 26, 1802, to Joseph Leopold Sigisbert Hugo and Sophie Trebuchet. He and his two older brothers, Abel and Eugène, lived with their mother in Paris, France, while their father, a general and the governor of the Italian province of Avelino, lived in Italy. Hugo's mother had a special friendship with General Victor Fanneau Lahorie, who became an enemy of the French government. She let him hide in their house, and it was during this time he became a teacher for the Hugo boys. The boys frequently traveled to see their father and these trips caused breaks in their education. As a young boy, Hugo showed an interest in writing poetry. When he was twelve years old, Victor and his brothers were sent to school at the Pension Cordier. There they studied the sciences and spent their leisure time writing poetry and plays. When Victor was fifteen, he won the poetry contest held by the Académie Française and the next year placed first in the Académie des Jeux Floraux's contest. Victor's

## VICTOR HUGO

**Born: February 26, 1802**

**Besançon, France**

reputation as a poet developed early in his life, and he received a royal salary in 1822.

In 1822 Hugo married his childhood sweetheart, Adèle Foucher, one and a half years after the death of his mother, who had opposed their marriage. The couple later had four children. Their apartment in Paris became the meeting place for the ambitious writers of the Romantic Movement. In 1822 Hugo also published his first signed book, *Odes et poésies diverses*.

### **Development of romanticism**

In 1824 a few of Hugo's friends began a group called *Muse française*. All were young writers who were beginning to break with neoclassicism (a style of writing that was based on the styles of ancient Greece and Rome in which logical, clear, and well-ordered writing was valued). After his visit to Alphonse de Lamartine (1790–1869) and his discovery of German balladry (putting stories to music in an artistic way), in 1826 Hugo published *Odes et ballades*, in which his rejection of neoclassicism was clear.

The years 1826 and 1827 were successful ones for the *Cénacle*, the name given to a group of young romantics who were supporters of Hugo and his poetry. They called him the “prince of poets.” Hugo stopped writing flattering odes (poems that express positive emotions and feelings about people or events) to King Charles X (1757–1836) and instead began praising Napoleon I (1769–1821). With the support and advice of friends, Hugo created the attitude of romanticism. This belief was expressed in the preface to his unproduced play, *Cromwell*, published in October 1827. He felt that poetry should follow nature, mixing the beautiful and the good

with the ugly and the displeasing. The Bible, Homer (c. ninth century B.C.E.), and William Shakespeare (1564–1616) were the inspirational sources of his new literature.

Convinced that romanticism must prove itself in the theater, Hugo followed *Cromwell* with a number of other plays. On February 25, 1830, the famous “battle of *Hernani*” took place, with Hugo's supporters out shouting the neoclassicists and antiromantics (people who opposed the romantic movement) who had come to show their disapproval for the play. *Hernani* was performed forty-five times (an unusual success for those days).

In 1831 Hugo published his novel *Notre Dame de Paris*, the work for which he is best known in the United States. In this he wished to convey the true spirit of the late Middle Ages through his creation of the Cathedral of Notre Dame and his characters: Frollo the archdeacon, Quasimodo the hunchback, and Esmeralda the gypsy girl. Although some readers were shocked that Frollo (who had taken holy orders) should fall in love with Esmeralda, the tale was a huge success.

### **Melancholy period**

Also in 1831 Hugo published one of his most beautiful collections of poetry, *Les Feuilles d'automne*. Once again, Hugo wrote about private topics. This volume expressed the sadness he felt about events in his past as the poet approached his important thirtieth birthday. It was not only the fact that he was aging that made Hugo depressed; his wife, tired of bearing children and frustrated by the poet's immense selfishness, turned for comfort to the poet's friend, the critic Sainte-Beuve. The sadness of this double betrayal is felt in *Feuilles d'automne*.



Due to Hugo's loneliness from his wife's rejection, he fell in love with the young actress and prostitute (a person who receives money for performing sexual acts) Juliette Drouet. He took it upon himself to save her. He paid her debts and forced her to live in poverty, with her whole life focused entirely upon him. From this time on she lived solely for the poet and spent her time writing him letters, of which many thousands are in existence.

With the arrival of the July Monarchy, Hugo became wealthy and famous, and for fifteen years he was the official poet of France. During this period a large variety of new works appeared, including three plays: *Le Roi s'amuse* (1832), *Lucrécia Borgia* (1833), and the triumph *Ruy Blas* (1838).

In 1835 came *Chants du crépuscule*, which included many love lyrics (poems telling of emotion or love) to Juliette. In 1837 came *Les Voix intérieures*, a memorial of his father, who had been a Napoleonic general. *Les Rayons et les ombres* (1840) was another of his written works that was a statement of his personal emotions.

### **Political involvement**

Hugo was now seized with a new ambition: he wished to become a statesman. When Louis Philippe was defeated in the Revolution of 1848, he allowed himself to be elected a deputy to the Assembly.

When Louis Napoleon began to achieve fame, Hugo supported him. But his enthusiasm for the new president was short-lived. He made a stirring plea for freedom of the press. At last, in 1849, he broke with Napoleon III (1808–1873).



Victor Hugo.

Louis Napoleon seized power on the night of December 2, 1850, and declared himself emperor. Hugo called for the people to fight back, and many were killed in this process. Hugo's involvement in the events put his life in danger. Juliette saved the poet, found him shelter, and organized his escape to Brussels, Belgium. From there he went to the British Channel islands of Jersey and Guernsey.

In November 1853 Hugo's anti-Napoleonic volume, *Les Châtiments*, was published in Belgium. Though banned in France, the books were smuggled in and widely distributed. The final edition of *Les Châtiments*, with numerous additions, was published in

1870, when Hugo returned to Paris after the fall of Napoleon III.

### **Hugo's mysticism**

During Hugo's long absence from France, he explored the dark side of his personality. There were many séances (meetings of people attempting to contact the dead) in his home. He believed that he was communicating with famous spirits. The "visit" that touched him most was that of his favorite daughter, Léopoldine, who had tragically drowned in the Seine with her young husband in 1843.

Indeed, Hugo's family was doomed with many tragedies. While his life in England energized his poetry, his wife and children became depressed. They longed for their friends and the familiar surroundings of Paris. His daughter, Adèle, withdrew into a fantasy world until at last she ran away from home. Hugo continued his experiments with the supernatural until stopped by the fragile mental state of his son, Charles. Hugo's wife left him to live in Brussels, where she died in 1868. Only Juliette remained loyal during the seventeen years the poet spent in England.

In 1856 Hugo published *Les Contemplations*, a work described as the progression of life from infancy to its end, complete with all of the emotional experiences that happen to a person during this process. Many of these poems predict Hugo's next major work *La Légende des siècles* (1859), conceived as part of an enormous uncompleted work whose mission was to "express humanity." Hugo dreamed of an all-inclusive vast poem. It would show that man and his soul were basically good and that the human spirit would come out and away from its concern with material things.

In 1862 Hugo published *Les Misérables*, a major novel, the work of many years. His guiding interest was a social and humanitarian concern for the disadvantaged. The book was not just an adventure story but a love story and a mystery as well. It solidified Hugo's concern for people who were treated unfairly in society and once again amazed the reading public with the range of his literary powers.

When Victor Hugo died in Paris on May 22, 1885, he was a time-honored man, crowned with worldwide glory, still enthusiastic and emotionally devoted to the last.

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## ZORA NEALE HURSTON

**Born:** January 7, 1903

**Eatonville, Florida**

**Died:** January 28, 1960

**Fort Pierce, Florida**

*African American author and folklorist*

Folklorist and novelist Zora Neale Hurston was best known for her collection of African American folklore *Mules and Men* (1935) and her novel *Their Eyes Were Watching God* (1937), in which she

charted a young African American woman's personal journey.

### **Childhood**

Zora Neale Hurston was born on January 7, 1903, in Eatonville, Florida, to Reverend John and Lucy Hurston. Zora's mother died when she was nine years old, and her father soon remarried. After her relationship with her stepmother rapidly declined, her father sent her to school in Jacksonville, Florida. Hurston greatly missed her mother and the warm, loving family atmosphere that she had grown up in. Hurston found herself being passed from relative to relative, while working as a nanny and a housekeeper.

When Zora was in her early teens she became a wardrobe girl in a Gilbert and Sullivan repertory company (a theatre company) touring the South. Eighteen months later, with the help of a former employer, she enrolled in Morgan Academy in Baltimore, Maryland, in 1917. She graduated a year later and went to Howard University, where she completed a year and a half of course work between 1919 and 1924. She secured a scholarship which allowed her to transfer to Barnard College, where she earned her degree in 1928. From 1928 to 1932 she studied anthropology (the study of human culture) and folklore at Columbia University under Franz Boas, a well-known anthropologist. In 1936 she was awarded a Guggenheim Fellowship for travelling and collecting folklore in Haiti and the British West Indies.

### **Early career**

Hurston had a variety of jobs in addition to the writing recognition that brought her

fame. She worked as a secretary for writer Fannie Hurst (1889–1968), a writer for Paramount and Warner Brothers Studios, a librarian at the Library of Congress, and a drama coach at North Carolina College for Negroes. Hurston began her writing career while at Howard when she wrote her first short story for *Stylus*, a college literary magazine. She continued to write stories, and in 1925 won first prize in the Opportunity literary contest for "Spunk." In 1939 Morgan College awarded her an honorary doctorate degree. In 1943 she received the Annisfield Award for the autobiographical *Dust Tracks on the Road*, a book about her life, which she wrote.

Also in 1943 she was given an alumni award from Howard University.

### ***Hurston's writings***

Hurston's most famous work is her novel *Their Eyes Were Watching God* (1937), in which she created the portrait of an African American female, Janie, growing into adulthood searching for her identity. Through a series of marriages Janie comes to know and define herself in terms of her relationship with whites. For several years after the novel's publication critics saw this work as a sentimental love story. However, if the novel is read with the understanding that love was the traditional way in which a woman was supposed to find self-fulfillment (completing oneself), then love can be seen as the vehicle for emotional, spiritual, and intellectual development. The novel also portrays the awakening of a woman's sexuality. With the women's movement of the 1970s and the growth of female awareness that followed, many critics cited this novel as the central text in the canon (list of the best) of literature by African American women writers, specifically, and by women writers in general.

Hurston was also a famous folklorist who applied her academic training to collecting African American folklore around her hometown in Florida. This work produced two collections of folklore, *Mules and Men* (1935) and *Tell My Horse* (1939). All of her work is characterized by her use of African American folk idioms (regional speech), which are important to her character portrayals.

Hurston wrote three other novels: *Jonah's Gourd Vine* (1934), an autobiographical novel about her father's rise from an illiterate (unable to read or write) laborer to a respected Baptist

minister; *Moses, Man of the Mountain* (1939), which recreated Mosaic biblical myth in an African context; and *Seraph on the Suwanee* (1948), which is about a woman's search for selfhood within the confines of marriage to a man who sees all women as inferior.

Although Hurston worked all of her life at many jobs and was an extremely productive writer, money was always a serious problem. In the late 1940s she returned to Florida and worked as a maid in Riva Alto. After several efforts to restart her writing career, she died in poverty in Fort Pierce, Florida, on January 28, 1960.

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**SADDAM  
HUSSEIN**

**Born:** April 28, 1937

**Tikrit, Iraq**

*Iraqi president*

Saddam Hussein, the socialist president of the Iraqi Republic beginning in 1979, is known for his political sharpness and ability to survive conflicts. He led Iraq in its long, indecisive war with Iran beginning in 1980. He was defeated in the six-week Persian Gulf War in 1990 at the hands of the United States after his invasion of Kuwait.

### *Early life*

Saddam Hussein al-Tikriti was born in 1937 to a peasant family in a village near Tikrit, Iraq. His father died before his birth and his mother died in childbirth. He was raised by his uncles, particularly Khairallah Talfah, a retired army officer who served as a role model for Hussein. (In 1963 Saddam married Talfah's daughter Sajida.) In 1956 he moved into his uncle's house in Baghdad, where he became involved in the strong Arab nationalist movement sweeping Iraq in the wake of the Suez war that year. In 1957 he joined the Arab Ba'th Socialist Party, founded in Syria in 1947 and dedicated to Arab unity and socialism (a social system where goods and services are distributed by the government). From 1957 on Saddam's life and career were tied to the Ba'th Party.

In 1959 Saddam Hussein was one of the party members who attempted to carry out the unsuccessful assassination of the Iraqi dictator, Major General Abdul Karim Qasim (1914–1963). Although wounded, he was able to escape to Syria and then Egypt, where he remained until 1963. In Egypt he continued his political activities, closely observing the tactics, movements, and politics of Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918–1970).

In February 1963 a group of Nasserite and Ba'thist officers in Iraq brought down the

government of Qasim, and Hussein returned to his country. However, this Ba'th party did not remain in power for long. In 1966 Hussein became a member of the Iraqi branch's regional command and played a major role in reorganizing the Ba'th Party in preparation for a second attempt at power. It was in this period that Hussein acquired his reputation as a tough and daring member of the Ba'th Party.

### *The dual rule: al-Bakr and Hussein*

In July 1968, after two attempts to overthrow the government, the Ba'th came back to power in Iraq, temporarily governing through the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC). Ahmad Hasan al-Bakr was elected president of the republic by the RCC and Hussein was elected vice president of the RCC in 1969. Between 1969 and 1979 Iraq was ruled outwardly by al-Bakr and behind the scenes by Hussein, who was a good manipulator and survivor.

In domestic affairs the Ba'th regime applied its socialist policy by bringing almost all economic activity under the control of the government. In 1972 Iraq nationalized (brought under government control) the foreign-owned oil company IBC, the first Middle Eastern government to do so. Hussein oversaw the rapid economic and social development of Iraq which followed the oil price increases of the 1970s. The country began to prosper, especially schools and medical facilities. A major campaign to wipe out illiteracy (the inability to write or read) was started in 1978 requiring children to attend schools. Women's social status was also greatly improved.

In international affairs, Iraq improved relations with the Soviet Union, a former country made up of Russia and other smaller

states that are now nations, and signed a treaty of alliance in 1972. At the same time Iraq distanced itself from the West, except for France. Iraq took a hard line on Israel and attempted to isolate Egypt after Anwar Sadat (1918–1981) signed the Camp David agreements with Israel's prime minister, Menachem Begin (1913–1992).

### *Saddam Hussein as president*

On July 16, 1979, al-Bakr resigned and Hussein was elected president of the Iraqi Republic. One of the first things he ordered were posters of himself scattered throughout Iraq, some as tall as twenty feet, depicting

himself in various roles: a military man, a desert horseman, a young graduate. He carefully created an image of himself as a devoted family man, all in order to win the trust and love of the Iraqi people. He held the titles of secretary general of the Ba'th party and commander in chief of the armed forces.

Throughout 1979 and 1980 relations with Iran had fallen apart, as Iranian leader Ayatollah Khomeini (1902–1989) called on Iraq's Shi'ites, a large branch of Islam, to revolt against Hussein and the Ba'thist regime. Secret pro-Iranian organizations committed acts of destruction in Iraq, while Iranians began shelling Iraqi border towns in 1980. In September 1980 the Iraqi army crossed the Iranian border and seized Iranian territory thus beginning a long, costly, and bitter war that continued into the late 1980s.

With the continuation of the war, Hussein adopted a more practical stance in international affairs. Relations with conservative countries such as Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and Egypt improved since they provided Iraq with either financial or military aid. Relations with the United States, cut in 1967 in protest against U.S. support for Israel in the Arab-Israeli conflict, known as the Six-Day War (June 1967), were restored in November 1984. However, Iraq did not change its friendly relations with the Soviet Union which, together with France, was the main source of its arms.

### *Tightening his grip*

Saddam Hussein is a man with the reputation for ruthless crushing of his opposition. When he assumed power, he rid his party of officials and military officers due to an alleged Syrian plot to overthrow his government. He executed another three hundred

officers in 1982 for rebelling against his tactics in the war with Iran. In order to protect himself, Saddam surrounded himself with family and friends in positions of trust and responsibility in the government. After a family dispute, his brother-in-law “mysteriously” died in a helicopter accident. He ordered the murders of his sons-in-law after they fled to Jordan in 1996. His image of a devoted family man was shattered with these acts. On at least seven occasions unsuccessful assassination attempts were made against Hussein.

In 1990 Hussein brought the wrath and combined power of the West and the Arab world down upon Iraq by his invasion of Kuwait. The Persian Gulf War, which Iraq fought against U.S. military forces, lasted for six weeks and caused Iraq’s leader worldwide criticism. However, there are still a great many supporters of Hussein scattered throughout the world.

Since the Persian Gulf War, the United Nations (UN; a multinational body aimed at world peace) lowered many sanctions (laws) upon Iraq, including letting UN weapons inspectors into certain areas of Iraq to check for illegal possession of chemical warfare items. Despite the pressure by the UN (and Saddam’s reluctant acceptance of the sanctions), he has maintained absolute power over his country. In 1997 citizens of Baghdad feared to criticize Hussein, and rumors circulated that he had put his wife under house arrest after his son Uday was shot.

In autumn 1997 Hussein accused UN inspectors of being spies and forced them to leave the country. The situation improved in early 1998, but then after Iraq once again refused to let the inspectors do their jobs, the United States and Great Britain began four

days of air strikes against the country. Hussein then stated that Iraq would no longer cooperate with UN inspectors. The air strikes continued throughout 1999 because Iraq continued to fire on planes that were patrolling no-fly zones that had been put in place by the UN.

In September 2001, after terrorist attacks on the United States, which resulted in the deaths of thousands of people in America, Hussein stated that he refused to offer his sympathy to U.S. president George W. Bush (1946–) because he did not agree with U.S. policy toward Iraq. Early in 2002 Hussein made an offer to openly discuss the sanctions with the UN. He later claimed that Iraq was no longer producing weapons that were made for the purpose of mass destruction. Many people believed that Hussein’s comments were made in an effort to gain support from countries as President Bush indicated that Iraq could become one of the enemies in the U.S.-led war against terrorism.

Saddam Hussein remains a powerful strongman, in spite of an ongoing embargo (stoppage of trade) of his country’s oil, goods, and services.

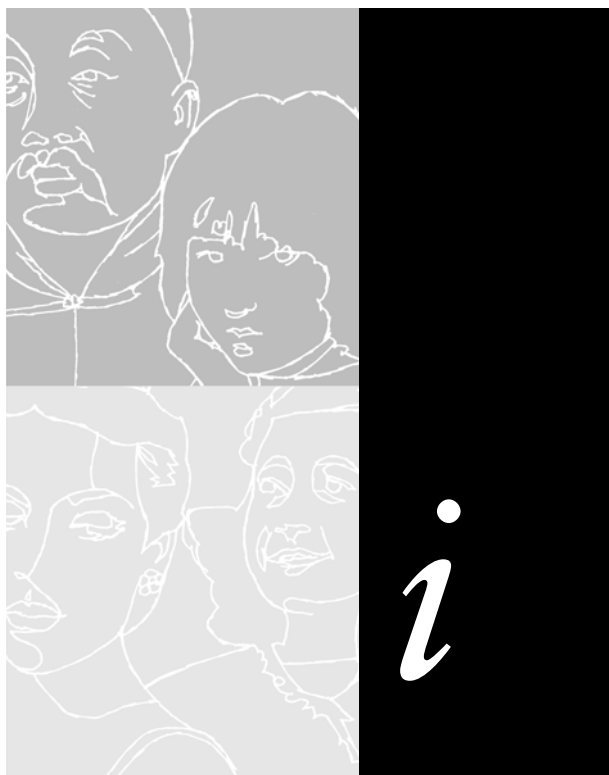
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## LEE IACOCCA

**Born:** October 15, 1924

**Allentown, Pennsylvania**

*American businessman and auto industry executive*

After a thirty-two year career with Ford Motor Company, including eight years as president, Lee Iacocca engineered one of business history's greatest comebacks at Chrysler Corporation. His success, coupled with appearances in television commercials and his best-selling book, made him one of the nation's most known and admired businessmen.

### *Early life*

Lido Anthony Iacocca was born October 15, 1924, in Allentown, Pennsylvania, the son of Italian immigrants Nicola and Antoinette. Iacocca grew up in comfortable surroundings learning the nuts and bolts of business from his father who worked as a cobbler, hot dog restaurant owner and a theater owner. Nicola was a businessman who taught his son about the responsibilities of money and the need for a strong drive and a great vision in order to build a thriving business. Nicola also ran one of the first car rental agencies in the country and passed on his love of the automobile to his son.

Iacocca's enlistment in the military during World War II (19139–45) was denied



because of his childhood battle with rheumatic fever, a terrible disease that can cause permanent damage to the heart. He earned an undergraduate degree in engineering from Lehigh University and later earned a master's degree from Princeton University. Even as a teenager, Iacocca decided that he was going to be an automobile company executive and focused his studies in that direction. He secured a much sought-after engineering trainee job at Ford Motor Company in 1946, but put off his start until he completed his master's degree at Princeton.

### ***At Ford Motor Company***

Joining Ford as an engineering trainee in 1946, Iacocca soon entered the fast pace of sales. In 1960, at age thirty-six, he sped into the vice presidency and general managership of the company's most important unit, Ford Division. In 1964, with others on his staff, he launched the Ford Mustang, which, thanks to brilliant styling and marketing, introduced a new wave of sports cars, set a first-year sales record for any model, gave its name to a generation, and landed its creator's picture on the covers of *Time* and *Newsweek*.

In 1960 Iacocca was named Ford's vice president of the car and truck group; in 1967, executive vice president; and in 1970, president. Pocketing an annual salary and bonus of \$977,000, the flashy executive also earned a reputation as one of the greatest salesmen in U.S. history. Of Iacocca, it has been said that he was always selling, whether products, ideas—or himself.

### ***From Ford to Chrysler***

Iacocca was let go from Ford Motor Company in June 1978 by Chairman Henry

Ford II for reasons Ford never revealed. Though bitter at being dismissed from Ford, Iacocca was not out of the car business for long. Five months after his dismissal, Iacocca was named president of Chrysler (becoming chairman in 1979) and began transforming the number three automaker from a sluggish moneymaker into a highly profitable business.

How was Chrysler turned around? By downsizing (to make smaller) expenses to a much lower break-even point; by winning approval of \$1.5 billion in federal loan guarantees; by selling off profitable units such as the tank division; and by introducing timely products. In addition, Chrysler welcomed, for the first time in U.S. corporate history, a union president to a board of directors. In 1984 the company posted profits of \$2.4 billion (higher than in the previous sixty years combined), and in 1985 it bought Gulfstream Aerospace Corporation for \$637 million and E. F. Hutton Credit Corporation for \$125 million.

In the early 1980s Chrysler issued the K-car and what would later become its best seller—the minivan. Just as the Mustang reestablished the sports car for Ford, the minivan would be loved by the young family in need of room and efficiency and revitalize Chrysler. In 1983 Chrysler paid the government back its loans and Iacocca became a star, a symbol of success and the achievement of the American dream.

Along with spearheading Chrysler's rise, Iacocca took leadership roles in many noteworthy causes, most notably the chairmanship of the President's Statue of Liberty-Ellis Island Centennial Commission, which was set up to raise funds for and to oversee

restoration of the two monuments in New York City. While Iacocca gained a worldwide reputation through business leadership, television commercials, and association with the Statue of Liberty, he gained much additional exposure through his 1984 autobiography (a book written by someone about their life). *Iacocca: An Autobiography*, the best-selling nonfiction hardcover book in history, had two million copies in print by July 1985.

### **Folk hero**

By the mid-1980s Iacocca had achieved folk-hero status. The *Saturday Evening Post* described him as “the sex symbol of America” and *Reader’s Digest* as “the living embodiment of the American dream.” Talk of Iacocca-for-president became increasingly widespread, and a 1985 poll of 1988 presidential preferences showed that the cocky industrialist trailed Vice President George Bush (1924–) by only three percentage points (41 to 38 points).

The late 1980s and early 1990s were not as kind to Iacocca. His public image, like Chrysler’s earnings, began to fall. At a time when the American people, in the grip of a recession (a temporary slowing of the economy), criticized the huge paychecks of executives whose companies were hurting, Iacocca who had once achieved a publicity coup (takeover) when, for a time, he only accepted one dollar a year from Chrysler, was paid a 1987 salary of \$18 million. In addition, Iacocca, criticized Japanese trading practices, blaming them for the ills that American car manufacturers had suffered. Critics stated that the American public believed that Japanese cars were superior



*Lee Iacocca.*

*Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.*

and instead of criticizing the Japanese, Iacocca’s car company should have competed with them. At the end of 1992, Iacocca retired. He remained a consultant to Chrysler, with a \$500,000 thousand a year salary and use of the company jet, until the end of 1994.

In 1995 Iacocca announced that he was taking Chrysler to court, claiming that it unlawfully blocked him from exercising \$42 million in share options that he had earned while he was the chairman. Chrysler claimed that Iacocca’s role as an adviser to Kirk Kerkorian, the investor who wanted to purchase the company, violated the share option

plan agreement. Although Kerkorian's bid failed to materialize because he was unable to raise the financial backing, Chrysler agreed to pay Iacocca \$21 million to settle the lawsuit. Iacocca continued to work as Kerkorian's consultant.

Iacocca and Mary McCleary were married in 1956 and had two daughters, Kathi and Lia. Mary died of diabetes (a blood disorder) in 1983, and in her memory, Iacocca donated his book earnings to diabetes research. Two later marriages, to advertising executive Peggy Johnson (1986) and restaurateur Darrien Earle (1990), ended in divorce. In 1999 Iacocca announced his latest venture, E-bikes. Iacocca believes these electronically motorized bikes will take the place of mopeds and other loud and polluting vehicles in crowded urban areas. Only time will tell if Iacocca's latest work will be as popular as his previous successes.

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## HENRIK IBSEN

**Born:** March 20, 1828

Skien, Norway

**Died:** May 23, 1906

Christiania, Norway

*Norwegian playwright*

The Norwegian playwright Henrik Ibsen made a tremendous impact on the course of Western drama. The best of his plays portray the real-life problems of individuals, with a skillful use of dialogue (conversation between individuals in a play) and symbols.

#### **Early life**

Henrik Ibsen was born on March 20, 1828, in Skien, Norway. His father was a successful merchant. When Ibsen was eight, his father's business failed, which was a shattering blow to the family. Ibsen left home at age fifteen and spent six years as a pharmacist's (one who prepares and sells drugs that are ordered by doctors) assistant in Grimstad, Norway, where he wrote his first play. In 1850 he moved to Christiania (Oslo), Norway, to study. In 1851 he became assistant stage manager of a new theater in Bergen, Norway, where part of his job was to write one new play a year. Although these plays were mostly unsuccessful, Ibsen gained valuable theater experience.

Ibsen returned to Christiania in 1857, where he spent the worst period of his life. His plays either failed or were rejected, and he went into debt. He left Norway in 1864, spending the next twenty-seven years in Italy

and Germany. He changed his appearance, his habits, and even his handwriting. He became distant, secretive, and desperate to protect himself from the real and imagined hostility of others.

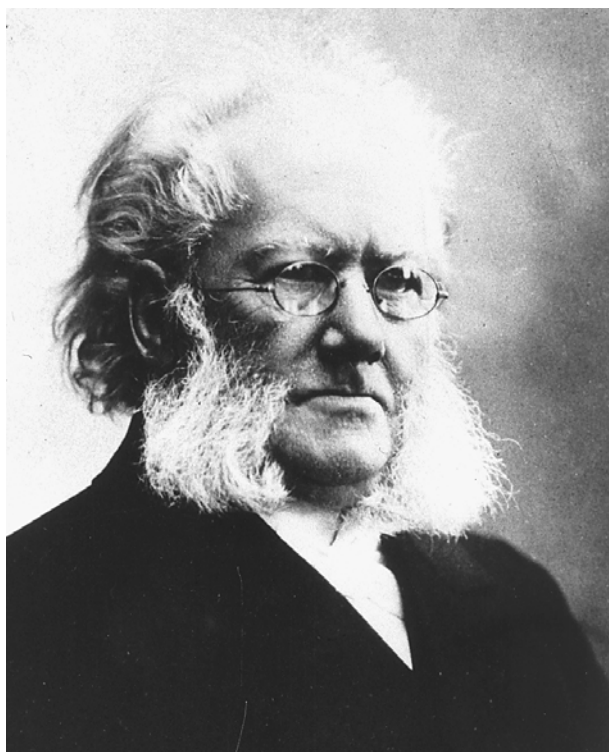
### Early plays

The main character in *Catiline* (1850), Ibsen's first play, is torn between two women who represent conflicting forces in himself. Ibsen's other early plays show him struggling to find his voice. The two plays he wrote during his second stay in Christiania were more successful: *Love's Comedy* (1862), which pokes fun at romantic love, and *The Pretenders* (1864), a historical and psychological (relating to the mind) tragedy (a serious drama that usually ends with the hero's death).

In the first ten years after leaving Norway Ibsen wrote four plays, including the immensely successful *Brand* (1866), about a man's attempt to understand himself. His next play, *Peer Gynt* (1867), made Ibsen Scandinavia's most discussed dramatist. *Peer Gynt* is *Brand*'s opposite, a man who ignores his problems until he loses everything, including himself. Ibsen called *Emperor and Galilean* (1873), a ten-act play, "a world-historical drama."

### Plays about current issues

Inspired by the demands of critics that literature should address current problems of the day, Ibsen set out to develop a dramatic form in which serious matters could be dealt with using stories about everyday life. Ibsen did not invent the realistic (based on real life) or social reform play, but he perfected the form. In doing so he became the most famous dramatist of the nineteenth century. Still, Ibsen



Henrik Ibsen.

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remained what he had always been, a man who disliked society and concerned himself only with the individual and his problems.

As used by George Bernard Shaw (1856–1950), a great supporter of Ibsen's work, the term "Ibsenite" describes a play that exposes individual and social hypocrisy (pretending to be what one is not). Examples are *Pillars of Society* (1877) and *A Doll's House* (1879), which point out how the conventions of society hinder personal development. In *Ghosts* (1881), however, the character of Mrs. Alving discovers that there are forces within the individual more destructive than the "dollhouse" of marriage and society. The last of the "Ibsen-

ite" plays, *An Enemy of the People* (1882), is one of Ibsen's finest comedies.

### Later works

After 1882 Ibsen concentrated more on the problems of the individual. *The Wild Duck* (1884) shows how the average man needs illusions (unreal and misleading thoughts or ideas) to survive and what happens to a family when it is forced to face the truth. In *Rosmersholm* (1886) a man raised in a tradition of Christian duty and sacrifice tries to break with his past. *Hedda Gabler* (1890) is the story of an unhappy woman who attempts to interfere with the lives of others. There is much of Ibsen, as he saw himself at the time, in *Hedda Gabler*.

Many of Ibsen's last plays represent confessions of his sins. *The Master Builder* (1892), one of Ibsen's most beautiful dramas, is the story of an artist consumed by guilt over the wife and children he has "murdered" to further his ambition. *John Gabriel Borkman* (1896) is a study of a man who sacrifices everything to his vision and is killed by the forces in nature he has sought to control. Ibsen's last play, *When We Dead Awaken* (1899), is an artist's confession of his failure as a man and of his doubts about his achievement. Soon after this play Ibsen suffered a stroke that ended his career. He died on May 23, 1906, in Christiania.

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## IMHOTEP

**Born:** c. 3000 B.C.E.

**Ankhtowe, Egypt**

**Died:** c. 2950 B.C.E.

**Memphis, Egypt**

*Egyptian magician, physician, scribe, sage, architect, astronomer, vizier, and priest*

Imhotep was an ancient Egyptian genius who achieved great success in a wide variety of fields. Inventor of the pyramid, author of ancient wisdom, architect, high priest, physician, astronomer, and writer, Imhotep's many talents and vast acquired knowledge had such an effect on the Egyptian people that he became one of only a handful of individuals of nonroyal birth to be deified, or promoted to the status of a god.

### Second in a long line of architects

Imhotep, or "he who cometh in peace," was born in Ankhtowe, a suburb of Memphis, Egypt. The month and day of his birth are noted precisely as the sixteenth day of Epiphi, third month of the Egyptian harvest (corresponding to May 31) but the year is not definitely recorded. It is known that Imhotep was a contemporary (living in the same time

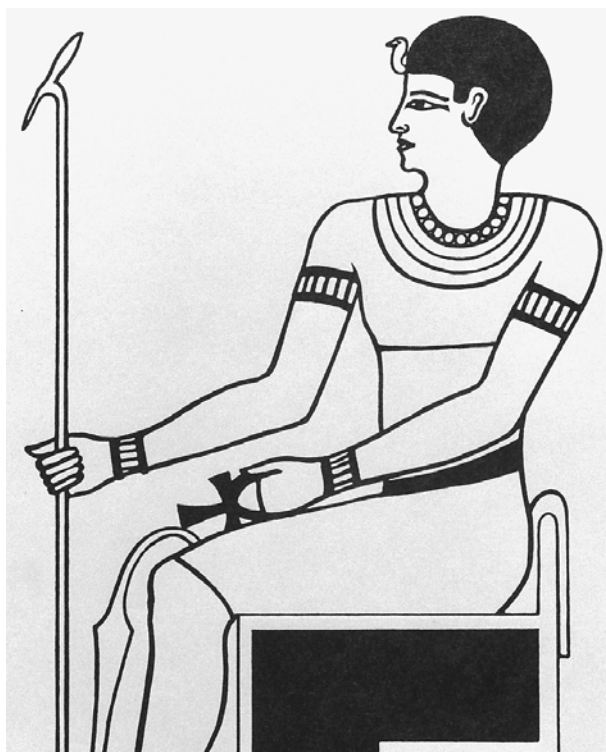
period) of the Pharaoh, or king of Egypt, Zoser (also known as Neterikhet) of the Third Dynasty. But estimates of the era of his reign vary by as much as three hundred years, falling between 2980 and 2600 B.C.E.

Imhotep's father, Kanofer, a celebrated architect, was later known to be the first of a long line of master builders who contributed to Egyptian works through the reign of King Darius the First (522–486 B.C.E.). His mother, Khreduonkh, who probably came from the province of Mendes, is known today for having been deified alongside her son, an Egyptian custom.

### ***Vizier under King Zoser***

The office of the vizier in politics was literally described as “supervisor of everything in this entire land.” Only the best educated citizen could handle the range of duties of this position that worked closely with the Pharaoh, or king of Egypt. As vizier, Imhotep was chief advisor to Zoser in both religious and practical matters, and he controlled the departments of the Judiciary (court system), Treasury, War, Agriculture, and the General Executive.

There are no historical records of Imhotep's acts as a political figure, but his wisdom as a religious advisor was widely recognized after he ended a terrible famine (a severe shortage of food) that dominated Egypt during seven years of Zoser's reign. It is said that the king was failing in his responsibility to please the god Khnum, and his neglect was causing the Nile to fall short of a flood level which would support Egyptian farms. Imhotep, having a vast knowledge of the proper traditions and methods of worship, was able to counsel Zoser on pleasing



*Imhotep.*

*Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

the god of the cataract (heavy rain), allowing the Nile to return to its usual flood level.

### ***Architect of the famous pyramid at Sakkara***

The Step Pyramid at Sakkara is the only of Imhotep's achievements that can still be seen and appreciated today. Its reputation is largely based on Imhotep's accomplishments as the pyramid's inventor and builder. This pyramid was the first structure ever built of cut stone, and is by far the oldest of the Seven Wonders of the World, the seven structures of the ancient world that were astonishing accomplishments for their time. It took twenty years to complete—not very long,

given the newness of the idea and the state of structural science in the Bronze Age (between 3000 B.C.E. and 1100 C.E.), the period of development where metals, particularly bronze, were used for the first time.

Imhotep wanted the tomb to accommodate the Pharaoh's rise into the heavens. To do this, he planned to improve upon the flat, rectangular mastabas, or built-in benches, which were the traditional tombal structures. The pyramid was raised on top of the base mastabas in five smaller steps, one on top of the other. He added a passageway on the north side issuing upward within the structure from a sarcophagus chamber (where the stone coffin holding the mummy is kept) seventy-five feet below ground. The total height of the pyramid and base is just under two hundred feet, unimaginably large for a single structure before Imhotep's design.

The project at Sakkara was designed in its entirety as a way for the deceased to perform the rituals of the jubilee festival, or Hebset. The complex consisted of many other buildings, as well as ornamental posts some thirty-seven feet high. The protection of the king and his burial gifts—about thirty-six thousand vessels (containers) of alabaster, dolomite, aragonite, and other precious materials—was the other primary function of the burial site. The entire complex, about one-quarter by one-half mile in area, was enclosed within a stone wall about thirty-five feet high. Imhotep added several false entrances to throw off possible tomb raiders. As a final measure, the king's treasure was lowered through vertical shafts around the tomb into a long corridor one hundred feet below ground. The digging of just this corridor without machines of any kind is an amazing accomplishment by modern standards.

It is likely that Imhotep was the architect and master builder of many other projects completed during a forty-year period of the Third Dynasty, though none of them compare in size or stylistic influence to the burial site at Sakkara. Imhotep was also the author of an encyclopedia of architecture that was used as a reference tool by Egyptian builders for thousands of years.

### *Physician-magician, god of medicine*

As a god of medicine, Imhotep was beloved as a curer of everyday problems who could "provide remedies for all diseases," and "give sons to the childless." Members of the cult of Imhotep in the Twenty-sixth and Twenty-seventh Dynasties (between 525 B.C.E. and 550 C.E.) would pay tribute to the God at his temple just outside Memphis. The temple also contained halls devoted to the teaching of medical methods, and to the preservation of the materia medica, which details the entirety of Egyptian medical knowledge which may actually have originated with Imhotep.

Imhotep's name was often grouped with such powerful deities as Thoth, God of Wisdom, Isis, the wonder-worker, and Ptah, a healer and the ancient God of Memphis. Although other humans were deified by the Egyptians, Imhotep is unique for being known by his own name as a god inferior in power only to Re (chief Sun-God). Imhotep was also a member of the great triad of Memphis, with Ptah, Imhotep's father among the gods, and Sekhmet, a goddess associated with childbirth.

It is a matter of debate today how much of Imhotep's reputation as a curer of disease stems from medical skill and how much comes from his command of magic and healing rituals.

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## WASHINGTON IRVING

**Born:** April 3, 1783

New York, New York

**Died:** November 28, 1859

Irvington, New York

*American author*

Considered the first professional distinguished writer in the United States with short stories like “Rip Van Winkle” and “The Legend of Sleepy Hollow,” Washington Irving was influential in the development of the short story form and helped to gain international respect for American literature.

**Childhood**

Washington Irving was born and raised in New York City, the youngest of eleven children of a prosperous merchant family. Named after President George Washington (1732–1799), Irving was fascinated by the upper class of New York City and would often sneak out of family prayer meetings to attend the local theatre.



Washington Irving.  
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

A dreamy and uninspired student, Irving apprenticed (worked to gain experience in a trade) himself in a law office rather than follow his elder brothers to nearby Columbia College. In his free time, he read avidly and wandered when he could around the misty, rolling Hudson River Valley. This area just north of New York City was steeped in local folklore and legend and served as an inspiration for his later writings.

**Begins writing career**

As a nineteen-year-old, Irving began contributing letters under the pseudonym (assumed name) Jonathan Oldstyle to a news-



paper owned by his brother Peter. His first book, *Salmagundi* (1807–08), was a collaboration with another brother, William, and their friend James Kirke Paulding. This highly popular collection of short pieces poked fun at the political, social, and cultural life of the city.

Irving enjoyed a second success in 1809 with *A History of New York, from the Beginning of the World to the End of the Dutch Dynasty*, a comical and purposefully inaccurate account of New York's Dutch colonization (settlement by a foreign nation) narrated by another pseudonym Diedrich Knickerbocker, a Dutch American.

Irving's carefree social life and literary successes were shadowed at this time, however, by the death of his fiancée, Matilda Hoffmann. For the next several years he floundered, wavering between a legal and writing career.

### ***Life in England***

In 1815 Irving moved to England to work in the failing Liverpool branch of the family import-export business. Within three years the company was bankrupt, and, finding himself at age thirty-five without means of support, Irving decided that he would earn his living by writing. He began recording the impressions, thoughts, and descriptions, which he reworked several times. These became the pieces that make up *The Sketch Book*. The volume was introduced under the pseudonym of Geoffrey Crayon.

*The Sketch Book* comprises some thirty parts: about half English sketches, four general travel pieces, six literary essays, two descriptions of the American Indian, three essentially unclassifiable pieces, and three short stories: "Rip Van Winkle," "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow," and "The Spectre Bridegroom." The varied material in *The Sketch Book* appealed to a

broad range of readers; the work received a great deal of attention and sold quickly. Irving found himself America's first international literary celebrity. In addition, the book's considerable profits allowed Irving to devote himself full time to writing.

Remaining in Europe for more than a decade after the appearance of *The Sketch Book*, Irving wrote steadily, and soon published *Bracebridge Hall; or, the Humorists: A Medley* (1822), which centers loosely around a fictitious English clan that Irving had introduced in *The Sketch Book*.

After 1824 Irving increasingly turned his attention from fiction and descriptive writing toward history and biography. He lived for several years in Spain, serving as a diplomatic attaché (a person who works for their government in a foreign country) to the American embassy in Spain while writing a life of Christopher Columbus (1451–1506) and a history of Granada, Spain. Irving served as secretary to the American embassy in London from 1829 until 1832, when he returned to the United States.

### ***An American celebrity***

After receiving warm praise from the literary and academic communities, Irving set out on a tour of the rugged western part of the country, which took him as far as Oklahoma. The expedition resulted in three books about the region, notably *A Tour on the Prairies* (1835), which provided easterners with their first description of life out west by a well-known author. Irving eventually settled near Tarrytown, New York, at a small estate on the Hudson River, which he named Sunnyside.

Among the notable works of Irving's later years is an extensive biography of George Washington (1732–1799), which he worked on determinedly, despite ill health, from the early 1850s until a few months before his death in 1859. As America's first literary star with stories like "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow," Irving established an artistic standard and model for later generations of American short story writers.

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